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The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 16, 1916.

Summary of the News

The Mexican situation has suddenly assumed a more critical aspect than at any time since the ill-advised adventure at Vera Cruz. Early on the morning of March 9 the bandit Villa, with a force, according to estimates, of some 1,500 men, crossed the frontier into United States territory and attacked the town of Columbus, N. M., raiding the place, firing a number of buildings, and killing eleven civilians. The raiders were finally driven off by a small detachment of United States cavalry. In the fighting a number of Mexicans and eight American troopers were killed, and six troopers and an officer wounded. One of the wounded troopers has since died. The bandits were pursued for only a short distance into Mexican territory, the American troops then returning to Columbus.

Immediate action was taken by the President. Announcement was made at the White House on March 10 that an adequate force would be sent at once in pursuit of Villa. "This," the announcement continued, "can and will be done in entirely friendly aid of the constituted authorities of Mexico, and with scrupulous respect for the sovereignty of that republic." This policy the President has made it evident that he is determined by every means in his power to maintain, despite sedulous efforts on the part of a section of the press—notably that which has been most opposed to upholding rights of American citizens violated by the German submarine warfare—to give to the proposed punitive expedition the color of a general intervention in Mexican affairs.

In reply to representations in regard to the raid made through Consul Silliman, General Carranza transmitted a note through the same medium, on March 11, expressing regret for the incident, and requesting permission for Mexican forces to cross into American territory in pursuit of the bandits, "acknowledging due reciprocity in regard to forces of the United States crossing into Mexican territory if the raid effected at Columbus should unfortunately be repeated at any other points of the border." Precedents were cited for this kind of reciprocal permission. On the following day General Carranza issued a manifesto, obviously intended primarily for home consumption, but seized upon avidly by the section of the press alluded to as evidence of his intention to resist the punitive expedition, in which he declared that "under no circumstances will any motive . . . justify the armed invasion of Mexican territory without reciprocal rights being granted to the Mexicans."

On Monday a note was forwarded to General Carranza containing a formal acceptance of his suggestion. The United States "grants permission for military forces of the *de-facto* Government of Mexico to cross the international boundary in pursuit of lawless bands of armed men who have entered Mexico from the United States, committed outrages on Mexican soil, and fled into the United States, on the understanding that the *de-facto* Government of Mexico grants the reciprocal privilege that the military forces of the United States may pursue across the international boundary into Mexican territory lawless bands of armed men who have entered the United States from Mexico, committed outrages on American soil, and fled into Mexico." The assumption is made that "the arrangement is now complete and in force . . . without further interchange of views." At the same time Secretary Lansing issued a statement expressly disclaiming, in the name of the President, any idea of intervention. As we write, preparations for the expedition are still under way, and the boundary has not yet been crossed. Correspondence from Washington conveys the impression that preparedness has not as yet gone so far as to make efficient the present organization for the concentration and equipment of an expeditionary force.

Interest in the Mexican issue, superadded to the formal endorsement by Congress of the President's foreign policy last week, has apparently served to kill the issue over armed merchantmen so far as Congressional interference is concerned. On March 8 Count von Bernstorff handed to Mr. Lansing a new memorandum from the German Government on the question, the full text of which was published in the papers of the following day. The wording of this document is ingenious if not ingenuous, the general endeavor being to make it appear that the German submarine campaign was undertaken only in reprisal for British efforts, by means of the blockade, to "starve" German civilians, whereas the chronology of events, as was pertinently pointed out in a reply issued by the British Embassy in Washington on March 9 and in a statement by Lord Robert Cecil on the following day, shows that the facts are exactly the opposite.

It is possible that the submarine issue with Germany may again be raised, as a result of the supposed torpedoing on the night of March 10, off Le Havre, of the Norwegian bark Silius, in the crew of which were seven Americans, all of whom were saved. The vessel received no warning and sank within five minutes. The captain and two of the crew perished. The first officer has been quoted by the Paris *Herald* as having expressed the opinion that the vessel might have been sunk by a bomb from an aeroplane. The majority of the crew, however, appear to be convinced that a torpedo was the instrument of destruction, and that view seems to be supported by the fact that a submarine is known to have been operating in the locality, and that a French ship, the Louisiane, was sunk only an hour and a half before the Silius.

The impetus of the German offensive against Verdun has sensibly slackened during the past week. On March 8 the French reported the recapture of the greater portion of Corbeaux wood, and since that time the loss or gain of territory on either side has been insignificant. Infantry attacks have not been undertaken by the Germans on any large scale during the last few days, although the activity of the artillery has been maintained on both sides. Dispatches from Paris profess to regard as significant the inaccuracy of recent German official reports, in which gains have been asserted which are flatly denied, and apparently disproved, by the French. French official reports also deny German figures as to unwounded prisoners.

On other fronts there is little to record, except the Russian occupation of Rizeh, on the Black Sea, thirty-five miles from Trebizond. On the line of advance through Persia steady progress is reported, and a dispatch of March 10 from Petrograd to the London *Daily Chronicle* stated that the capture of Kermanshah had made a considerable impression upon the Turkish tribes, who were now submitting to the Russians.

War was formally declared by Germany on Portugal on March 9. The declaration cited as the immediate cause the seizure of German ships in Portuguese ports on February 23, but also enumerated a long series of alleged breaches of neutrality on the part of Portugal, including the extended use of Portuguese ports by British men-of-war, and the use of Madeira as a British naval base. A statement of the Portuguese view was given out by the Portuguese Legation in Washington on Monday. Portugal, it said, had entered the war on the request of Great Britain, and as a result of her long-standing alliance with England, which dated from 1373.

Winston Churchill, early last week, emerged from the trenches to deliver a frontal attack in the House of Commons on his successor at the Admiralty. Colonel Churchill expressed fears as to whether the programme of naval construction, as laid down during his own incumbency, was being kept up to date, and caused considerable surprise by advocating the bringing back to the Admiralty of Lord Fisher. Mr. Balfour replied to Colonel Churchill's charges on March 8, defending the present administration of the navy, and declaring that the fleet was as prepared for any duty as it was possible to make it.

The British reply to the German note, rejecting the offer by the British Government for an investigation of the Baralong case by a court composed of American naval officers, was issued on March 7. The note consists principally of criticisms of the German statements in regard to the three cases of alleged German barbarity which the British Government requested should be investigated side by side with the Baralong case.

A conference of the Premiers and Foreign Ministers of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden was held last week at Copenhagen, beginning on March 9. The conference, as was made clear to one of Mr. Ford's delegates who was received by it, was not in any way concerned with proposals for mediation in the war, but solely with questions affecting the joint interests of the Scandinavian countries and the maintenance of their neutrality, with especial reference, it is understood, to the possibility of naval activities in the Baltic which would seriously interfere with Scandinavian trade.

The Week

The German note on submarine warfare, presented to the State Department last Thursday, is friendly and conciliatory in tone and smoothly plausible in reasoning. That it satisfactorily meets the test of fact or law we do not think. The German Government labors under an initial difficulty. How can it come forward now to profess scrupulous devotion to international law, when it began this war by an act which its own Chancellor admitted was a gross violation of that law? A German official arguing about the sanctity of the law of nations must always choke on the word Belgium. Moreover, this latest German note makes only a partial statement of the facts. It goes back to the series of reprisals between England and Germany, but does not go back to the beginning. It dates the whole trouble from the British order of November 3, 1914, declaring the North Sea a war zone. But it chooses to forget the reason for this order—namely, that the German Admiralty had previously, in disregard of international law and the Hague Conventions, sown the high seas with mines. The lawless steps for which retaliation was adopted thus began with Germany. But we do not wish at present to press these and other points against the German note. The reason is that it is plainly not put forth as a finality. It is obviously a preliminary to further discussion between the two Governments, in the hope of a peaceful adjustment. Instead of being defiant, the note is almost pleading. It recites what Germany has already done to "comply with the wishes of the American Government" in the matter of submarine warfare, and fairly invites further suggestions. All this being true, the way is open for diplomatic skill to find a way out of the controversy.

Even the completely efficient German Government has its parliamentary difficulties in the conduct of foreign affairs. The Chancellor and the Foreign Minister took occasion recently to make a protest against the action of the Budget Committee of the Prussian Diet, in passing resolutions which called for the most extreme use of the submarine weapon, and deplored the yielding attitude of the Foreign Office towards the United States. Official notice was printed that there was no objection to private and confidential discussions by the Committee, "in such a grave crisis," but that publication of the resolutions "compels us to declare that the management and direction of foreign policy and the war is exclusively the right of the German Emperor." The Agrarians did not like this at all, and some Conservative newspapers were quite bitter about it, reminding the Government that Bismarck used to take Parliamentary opinion into account in matters of foreign policy. So he did, when he wanted to; otherwise not. The Liberal press supported the Government, the *Tageblatt* remarking that the hot-headed Conservatives apparently wished to torpedo the whole earth, including the Imperial Chancellor!

The Overseas News Agency attempts to dispose of the British statement that the submarine which torpedoed the Arabic was sunk before her commander had time to report by this triumphant bit of reasoning:

> The [British] news organization in its report forgets that every one must ask himself why the German Government should have used this trick when it would have been much easier for the Germans to admit the loss of the submarine and to state that it was impossible for them to relate what had happened. This would have saved the trouble of long negotiations regarding the Arabic case.

Now, for our own part, we consider it highly improbable that the German Government's story of the submarine commander's report was a lie made out of whole cloth; but as to the absence of motive for such a lie, that is nonsense. Does the Overseas News Agency forget that the German Government's first position in regard to the Arabic was an absolute denial of responsibility? That it declared that even if the submarine commander had made a mistake, his report showed that it was an honest mistake, and he was therefore not to be held to blame? Could this position have been "much easier" to take if the Government had admitted that the submarine had been sunk and all hands had perished before any report could be made?

The most impressive features of Mr. Balfour's statement in the House of Commons last week were the figures for tonnage added to the fleet since the outbreak of the war and the number of men transported under the protection of the fleet. An increase of a million fighting tons would mean the equivalent of 36 Queen Elizabeths, of 33 battle cruisers of the Tiger class. It is obvious that the increase was not all in capital ships. Light cruisers, destroyers, and submarines have been built in large numbers. How large, appears from a study of the British naval programme as we knew it at the outbreak of the war. At that time there were in the course of construction fourteen superdreadnoughts and one battle cruiser, the Tiger. Of these ships, five carried 13.5-inch guns and ten carried 15-inch guns. Half of the ships we know were completed some time ago, among them the Queen Elizabeth and her sister ships, Warspite, Valiant, and Barham. Of five ships laid down between November, 1913, and January, 1914, we know nothing definite; but we may assume that in the special emergency they have been finished in the exceptional time of two years. It may be that even better records have been made, and that Great Britain now has capital ships which were started after the war; but it is not likely that there are many of these. If all the ships under construction at the beginning of the war be taken as completed, it would mean an addition of 368,000 tons. If we assume that half-a-dozen more capital ships have been begun and finished during the war, it would still make only half the tonnage announced by Mr. Balfour.

What half a million tons in light cruisers, destroyers, and submarines mean in actual units appears from the following consideration. Before the outbreak of the war Great Britain had gone in for the lighter type of cruiser. When war began she had building twenty cruisers, of which four were of 5,400 tons with a speed of twenty-five knots, eight of 4,400 tons with a speed of thirty knots, and eight of 3,600 tons with the same speed. This last, the Arethusa class, has acquitted itself best by common report, and we may take it that light cruisers built since the war have been largely of the Arethusa type. In the same way, we may assume for the destroyer the high average of 1,000 tons, and for the submarine the equally high average of 800 tons. If light cruisers, destroyers, and submarines were built in equal numbers, half a million tons would mean 93 of each type, or a total of 280 units. But it is evident that the proportion for destroyers must have been much larger than for light cruisers and submarines. For the latter especially Great Britain would have comparatively little use. We may take it, therefore, that two-thirds of the additional tonnage is represented by destroyers. In other words, the British may have built between three and four hundred of the type of craft that has proven most efficacious against the submarine. It is to this factor that we must look for an explanation of British confidence in having solved the submarine peril, and not to magic nets and other devices. At the beginning of 1914 Great Britain had 290 torpedo boats and de-

stroyers. She may now have between six and seven hundred. It is these boats that have fenced off the Channel for the undisturbed movement of armies to and from the Continent.

Admiral Fletcher has been an alert and frank witness before the House Naval Committee. He has stood up sailor-fashion for the efficiency of the fleet as it exists. Those new-fangled patriots who insist that nobody can really love his country unless he maintains that the navy is "rotten" must have been disgusted with the Admiral's testimony, and set him down as little better than a traitor. He was asked if, in view of the additions to the British navy, it would not be hopeless for the United States to think of building the largest fleet in the world. Not at all, said the Admiral breezily; all we have to do is to spend $1,500,000,000 on ships, and have an annual naval appropriation bill of $760,000,000. He further expressed the opinion that the end of the war would bring with it the best chance the modern world has seen to effect disarmament. Might we not, then, wait and see? By no means; build ships and then disarm. This is the inevitable Navy logic.

In a field in which there has been so much irresponsible ranting, it is a satisfaction to find an outgiving so sensible and right-minded as is the report of President Wilson's Colorado Coal Strike Commission, sent to Congress last week. We are not surprised to find that the Commission has not undertaken to assess the blame for the long-continued troubles that culminated in bloody conflict, as between operators and miners; the report is concerned with the present and the future, rather than with the past. It points out the seriousness of the evil caused by the pendency of 400 indictments against men charged with strike violence. It is a grave injustice to these men that, while awaiting trial, they should either suffer long confinement in jail or, if out on bail, labor under the handicap of the indictment in their efforts to obtain employment. It is evidently an imperative requirement that this situation should be promptly ended; and its continuance thus far is one more reminder of the fact—so strongly brought home to the country when the troubles were at their height—that deficiencies in government are quite as serious a cause of mischief as the bad disposition of either employers or employed. According to the Commission, the general labor conditions now existing in Colorado appear to be very satisfactory. Its suggestion that a thorough inquiry be made into the possibility of measures which should make employment in the mines more regular is one that deserves attention in other mining regions as well as in Colorado.

The arguments in the trading-stamp cases which the Supreme Court has just decided ought to find due notice in the books now so common on the rationale of buying and the psychology of salesmanship. The suits hinged upon the laws of Florida and Washington, which laid prohibitory taxation upon such stamps; and these have been found wholly Constitutional. Those who have held that trading stamps conduced to a mistaken conception of thrift will feel their position strengthened by Justice McKenna's opinion. He made short work of the argument that the giving of stamps, or the enclosure of premium certificates in packages, was merely a form of advertising. Advertising he defined as identification: as a process by which attention is called to an article and its merits, the article to be sold for its intrinsic value alone. But the givers of premium stamps and certificates "rely upon something else than the article sold; they tempt by a promise of values . . . apparently not represented in the purchase price, and thus by an appeal to cupidity lure to improvidence." Franklin's proverb about there being nothing so dear as the bargain at a penny which was never used is the maxim against which trading-stamp purchasers most sin. But it would seem that common-sense would be more effective than law against the instinct to buy shagreen spectacles because of the temptation of accompanying "premiums."

Why the United States Senate moves as slow as Ajax, and just why its orators are expected to be prolix and repetitious, is so much a mystery to the ordinary man that any light on it is welcome. In the debate on the Water Power bill the other day, a point of order was raised against Senator Newlands, who had spoken a dozen times or more on the measure, and who was at the moment threshing the old straw over again. Senator Shields read from Jefferson's "Manual": "No one is to speak impertinently or beside the question, superfluously, or tediously." But the presiding officer felt that this would be a blow at the very vitals of Senatorial oratory, and refused to sustain the point of order. Thereupon Senator Newlands, with infinite good nature, explained that he believed in the rule, and would like to see it enforced, but that conditions in the Senate made this impossible. Here is his explanation:

> As the result of my training in the House of Representatives and my legal training before I went to the House I was able at any time to say all that I had to say upon any subject in an hour. I came to the Senate and I found the process of dilution going on here, and I gradually fell into the habit of the Senate and found its wisdom. If you cannot have more than ten Senators in the Chamber at any one time and you want to get the attention of ninety Senators, it will be necessary for you to repeat your speech nine times.

But think of the sufferings of the faithful few who are compelled to hear it nine times over. It must be admitted, however, that Senator Newlands has at last shown the exact reason why no man can read through the entire *Congressional Record* and live.

Thomas R. Marshall has made the most powerful argument possible for his reëlection. In an interview at Chicago, he admitted that he liked the job of being Vice-President. "The finest in the world," he calls it, "if you only understand how to take it." Mr. Marshall understands how to take it. He has had "a perfectly delightful social time in Washington." Then he "was situated" where he "could meet all the people worth meeting," and he "availed" himself "of the opportunity." No wonder that he says quite frankly, "If my party wants to give me the job again, why, I'll take it." Still there are proprieties to be observed. "No campaign for me," he declares. All that he went West for was to urge people to vote at primaries, as they should, and to set the example by participating in those of Indiana. We like the Vice-President's joy in his job. We are glad for him, and it is not a bad thing for the country that he should contrive to spread the impression that one can be happy though Vice-President. Nothing is gained by our way of belittling the position. Doubtless most Vice-Presidents have found it rather agreeable. Under Hobart, with McKinley's coöperation, it assumed importance, and at least one man with higher aspirations sought it, but Fairbanks's four years of it can hardly be said to have advanced him towards the White House.

The Progressives have rather suddenly developed a coyness which is more distressing to their old comrades than their former belligerency. The delegates chosen in New York city last Monday to the Chicago Convention are "understood" to be for the Colonel—under the vigorous prodding recently given some of the doubtful by the vigilant

Perkins. Concerning the up-State delegates, no man seems to know. In Massachusetts, the Gardner-Bird aggregation is apparently in the Republican party but not quite of it. Gov. McCall, an old-fashioned sort of person, thinks that the union might be completed now, with all differences forgotten by June 7. But this is too hasty for the Progressive wing. All that its members will concede is to make the Colonel their first choice, leaving the implication that somebody else might under some circumstances be a second. But this does nothing to relieve the Bay State of the sad spectacle of two rival sets of candidates for delegates to Chicago. If there is to be union at last, why the bitterness of a preliminary fight? Gov. McCall shows the depth of his feeling in the matter by offering to resign as candidate in favor of the obdurate Bird. But flirtation has become a habit with the Progressives. It must be kept up to the last possible minute; and then—who knows?—they may spring upon the dazed old party a radiant June bride.

The first Presidential nominee has been chosen by a direct primary. Allan L. Benson, who is to be the Socialist standard-bearer in November, received a plurality of about 3,000 over the nearer of his two opponents, in a total vote of 32,938. The ballots were cast by dues-paying members of the Socialist party as distinguished from the larger body of enrolled Socialists or the still larger body which cast its vote for Mr. Debs four years ago. In 1908 the Socialist vote was a little over 900,000. Mr. Benson has thus been nominated by about 4 per cent. of the voting strength of his party. This, however, is a normal condition, and does not indicate Socialist apathy. On the contrary, the total vote shows that the Socialist party has spoken out very decisively on the question of preparedness, which at one time seemed to threaten severe dissensions in the Socialist ranks. Mr. Benson has been very prominent in his opposition to increased armaments. Mr. Maurer, who ran a close second, has been equally emphatic against preparedness. Between the two they have polled nearly 29,000 votes out of a total of 33,000. Plainly, Socialist sentiment is overwhelmingly against the militarist position taken by Charles Edward Russell and other Socialist leaders in a moment of panic.

Belief that the American flag is disappearing from the Pacific is not borne out by recent reports. The Pacific Mail has bought from the Royal Dutch West India Mail Company three of its largest liners, the Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador, and is to build two sister ships, all to be operated from San Francisco. They are of 5,700 tons, and are expected to get their share of West Coast and Caribbean trade. It has also been announced that most of the eighteen vessels of the Gaston, Williams & Wigmore Steamship Company, formed in New York, will be used in the trans-Pacific service. Portland reports the capitalization at $5,000,000 of the Oriental Alliance Steamship Company, to run eleven or more vessels between that city and the Orient. The Union yards of San Francisco and others have been enlarged, and new ones built, under the stimulus of a business from Australia four times as great as a year and a half ago, and with China, Japan, and Siberia three times as great. Competition with the cheaply manned Oriental vessels is severe; but with hope of a more liberal Seamen's law, our Pacific shipping may be greatly expanded.

An unintentional argument for the short ballot is made by a majority of the Committee on Election Laws in the Massachusetts Legislature. The primary does not work well in relation to the State offices of Secretary, Treasurer, Auditor, and Attorney-General. Accordingly, the Committee reports a bill restoring to the conventions their former control over these nominations. Thus, an institution in which the voters are only mildly interested is to attend to a matter in which also the voters are only mildly interested. This would be logical enough if the same indifference extended to the results of the nominations. But the voters have a great interest in the proper administration of the treasury, for example. The voters are finally responsible, but when they have shown their determination not to exercise responsibility in a particular direction, it is silly to continue a system based upon the theory that they will exercise it. Appointment of the officers in question by the Governor would fix responsibility for their conduct upon a man in whom the voters are sure to be interested.

Belief in the miracle-working power of the single tax is deep-seated in its advocates, and is ever being fed by weird statistical argument. Sometimes the statistics are right enough, but don't prove anything; sometimes the figures themselves are wild. In an Ohio single-tax weekly, we find this:

> The single-tax principle employed in early Ohio taxation of levying taxes on land and exempting or taxing lightly for local purposes all personal property had the effect of compelling non-resident land-holders either to settle on their lands or sell them. In 1810 non-residents paid almost twice as much taxes in Ohio as residents, as at that time their holdings were double the number of acres owned by actual settlers. This system of taxation produced two beneficial results. It caused a rapid settlement of the State, and it soon wiped out absentee landlordism. In 1815 non-residents owned only half the taxable land, while in 1820 they held only half as much land as residents. During the same period the population of the State increased from 47,000 to 581,000.

The figure for 1820 is correct; but according to the United States Census the population of Ohio in 1810 was not 47,000, but 230,760; the increase in the decade, therefore, was not 1,150 per cent., but 150 per cent. And there is certainly nothing astonishing about this, considering the natural attractions of Ohio, and the fact that it was at the very edge of the settled territory of our young country. In the decade from 1880 to 1890 the population of Washington Territory grew from 75,000 to 349,000; Kansas, between 1860 and 1870, advanced from 107,000 to 364,000; Mississippi's population in the decade 1830-40 grew from 136,000 to 375,000, and Missouri in the same decade advanced from 140,000 to 383,000. Perhaps it is not necessary to call upon the single tax for an explanation of the fact that a vast fertile unoccupied area has a great attraction for enterprising settlers.

Mortgages on Longfellow's birthplace in Portland totalling $40,000 are to be foreclosed within the year; and to save the structure to the public, a Longfellow Birthplace Association has been formed under the presidency of the poet's niece. Some harm has been done the object of this association by the statement that the birthplace is much less important than the Congress Street house in which Longfellow lived for thirty-five years, and which was presented to the Maine Historical Society by his sister. Yet the birthplace, maintained wholly by private effort—the International Longfellow Society has collected subscriptions from Germany, Scandinavia, and the British Empire—has been the storehouse of a valuable collection of old furniture, books, magazines, manuscripts, and works of art sent by people interested in Longfellow from all parts of the United States. Itself a fine colonial mansion, it has become one of the city's chief attractions to tourists, those of literary repute having been able to engage rooms in it. The Association addresses itself to the general public for help.

OUR "ANXIOUS TASK" IN MEXICO.

The phrase is Gen. Funston's, and thus far he and the other army officers on the border have shown a fitting sense of the difficult nature of the work before them. Gen. Pershing has issued a statement setting forth to the men of his command the need of the greatest care in showing due regard to Mexican sensibilities. The military expedition into the territory of northern Mexico must be kept in appearance, as well as in fact, one of entire friendliness to the Mexican people and Government. What is to be undertaken is really a kind of international police duty. The use of the army for such a purpose, provided the necessity of it and the unselfish aim of it can be made clear and acceptable to the Mexicans, is just as proper as it was in the case of the railway riots in 1894, or more recently in the mining disorders in Colorado. If there can be something like joint operations with Carranza's troops in running down Villa, so much the better. In every way, both in the diplomatic conduct of the affair at Washington and in the employment and bearing of our soldiers, the prime obligation is to put American motives in all this affair beyond suspicion. Our sole aim is to catch an international outlaw, and to put an end to his murderous depredations in either country.

That this in itself will be no child's play, and that the danger of misunderstandings and complications will be imminent, no sane person can deny. All the greater reason for those in authority to act upon a plan well thought out, and with delicacy as well as firmness. This is a mighty good time for Senators and Representatives to put bridles on their tongues. Every rash word uttered in the Capitol will reach Mexico; and wild and flamboyant talk, meant primarily for gratified constituents in Arizona or New Mexico or Texas, will surely cross the border and have a bad effect. And the press, too, should be on its guard against doing anything to inflame a situation already perilous enough. The Administration has sought to come to an agreement with Carranza, under which the appearance of our forces in Mexico might not be resented as the beginning of an invasion. This is a first step of the highest importance, and there seems no reason now why it may not be safely taken. Carranza's official reply was no more grudging than was to have been expected; and since he holds out for a reciprocal permission, as in former years, for troops to pursue bandits across the line in either direction, our Government's decision to come to terms with him on that basis is well taken. Our part of the undertaking will be acted upon; his will be a form. But if it saves his face with his own people, that is a sound argument for conceding it to him.

Despite all the recent exhortations to think internationally, it is doubtful if many people in this country have sought to understand the Mexican state of mind. Americans have for years expressed their dislike and contempt for Mexicans; yet we feel it a strange thing that they do not love and trust us. As a matter of fact, suspicion and dread of the United States have long been an active force in Mexican public life. The memory of 1846 persists. Mexicans cannot be blamed for remembering how our professions of friendship were followed by a dismembering of their country. Even the patient forbearance shown by the United States Government during the past four years has not sufficed to wipe out the old jealousy and uneasiness. This is what makes Carranza's position so difficult today. If he were to acquiesce without stipulation or protest in the movement of American troops into Sonora or Chihuahua, he would at once be accused of having betrayed Mexico to the Yankees. If such a conviction were to spread, his hold on power would be much more insecure than it is already. Hence the need of showing him and his *de-facto* Government scrupulous respect. Our rulers and military commanders ought to proceed on the understanding that we have to deal not only with a punctilious and obstinate Mexican President, but behind him with a people sensitive, proud, and militarily vainglorious. They may be preposterous in their attitude from the American point of view, but there their attitude stands, unquestionably a serious element in the problem set us to solve. In accusing the Mexicans, in their pride and ignorance, of shutting their eyes to the facts, we must not shut our own eyes to the facts.

It is distinctly a time for all concerned to walk warily. President Wilson cannot desire to undo in a day all that he has wrought at for three years—namely, the assuring of Mexico that we do not covet her lands and will never be guilty of aggressive attacks upon her; together with the building up of his policy of friendliness and confidence and coöperation for all the American republics. Accordingly, it is certain that he will do everything in his power to make it plain to Mexicans that with the capture of Villa, and the extermination of his murderous bands, our arms will at once be withdrawn to our own soil, and we welcome Mr. Lansing's explicit declaration on Monday to that effect. Much will depend upon the discretion and tact of the officers in command of our forces as they press into Mexico. Gen. Pershing has stressed the need of the most careful consideration for the feelings as well as the rights of the population where our troops pass. Truly, it is an "anxious task" which our Government has undertaken; but with good will and good fortune it may be accomplished.

VERDUN AND ERZERUM.

The two names have a closer relation than mere coincidence in time. They emphasize the balance of forces along the enormous battle-front which has characterized the war from the beginning. They also illustrate the shifting of opinion in either camp under the influence of local victory. When the Germans were pressing down towards the Marne in the first month of the war, the Russians were pushing forward into East Prussia. Now that the Germans are hitting out along the Meuse, the Russians are overrunning Armenia. It is natural that the respective combatants should accentuate the importance of the theatre of war in which they have been successful. At the beginning Germany expected a decision in France; hence the violation of Belgium. When the way to Paris was blocked, Berlin looked for a decision in Russia, and for a time last summer it had fair reasons for such a belief. The way into Russia was blocked, and Berlin turned to the Balkans. It is within recent memory how German opinion thrilled to the vista of a front of victory through Asia Minor and Mesopotamia to India. While German victories were being won in the east, it was natural enough for the Allies to insist that the decision must be fought out in France and Belgium. To-day the Germans are apparently of the same opinion, while the Allies are accentuating the collapse of Teutonic plans in Asia Minor.

From such fluctuations of opinion the fact does emerge that the line in the west is where absolute victory and defeat must be decided. If the present German assaults held out the possibility of a sharp break in the French lines and a renewed march on Paris, there would be complete justification for the group of military critics in England who have been protesting against the diver-

sion of efforts from the only important theatre of war, against the policy of frittering away resources which worked so badly in the Dardanelles, and which has yet to justify itself at Salonica. But the results of the present enormous German effort in France show that in this sphere Germany can hope for no decision. It is more than three weeks since the attack began on Verdun. In less than three weeks last May the Teutons had pushed forward seventy miles into Galicia on a front of perhaps fifty miles. But now they have won only a strip of territory from two to four miles wide on a front of perhaps twenty miles. After the preliminary successes which may always be obtained by a sufficient bombardment of enemy trenches, the lines are swaying back to deadlock. But if that is the case, if a decision in the west is still not in sight, operations elsewhere do rise to importance. With something like stalemate around Verdun, the advance from Erzerum takes on meaning.

We need not take the reports of panic in Constantinople at their face value in order to recognize the significance of the Allied advance in Asia Minor. Half of Armenia, a matter of 30,000 square miles, is in Russian hands. From western Persia the Russian forces are pressing westward towards the Tigris and Bagdad. Lower Mesopotamia, as far as Kut-el-Amara, is held by the British. A combined advance in strength against Bagdad is among the probabilities of the future. But for the moment the strategic situation may be dismissed. What the men at Constantinople must contemplate is the establishment of Russia and Great Britain in Turkish provinces of which there is little likelihood that they will ever let go, short of the capture of Paris by the Kaiser. What will become of Russian Poland is doubtful. But even the erection of an independent Poland will be small comfort to the Turks for the loss of Armenia and the coastland of the Persian Gulf. And at Berlin itself that roseate land-empire which was to compensate for England's mastery of the seas has faded to a dream. Even if the Allies in Asia go no further, the Bagdad railway is left hanging in the air. And the chances are good for the Allies going much further.

Provided, therefore, the Allies have the men to spare from their lines in the west, the diversion of French and British troops to the Balkans and Asia Minor is not a waste of effort. That the Allies are confident of having enough men is attested by the very fact of their embarking on distant expeditions. We cannot imagine Joffre's sending away army divisions to Salonica if he were afraid of the situation in France. From Armenia, the Tigris, Salonica, and soon perhaps from Egypt, Allied pressure is being exerted upon the weakest member of the Teutonic confederacy. When it comes to the matching of gains at the end of the war, Turkey will be the one to meet the heaviest account. At Constantinople the question must now be whether Turkey will not have to pay a price incommensurate with the benefits she has derived from her Imperial allies.

PORTUGAL IN THE WAR.

Four days after the announcement of a state of war between Great Britain and Germany, the Portuguese Chambers entrusted the Government with full powers to deal with the situation. The Premier, however, announced that for the time being it did not seem necessary in the interests of the understanding with England to abandon neutrality. Desultory skirmishing between Portuguese and German troops in Africa was reported during the early weeks of the war, but formal neutrality remained unimpaired until the Portuguese Government by the recent seizure of German shipping invited the declaration of war which came last week from Berlin. Anglo-Portuguese friendship is a matter of more than five hundred years. It was cemented by the Methuen commercial treaty in 1703, by which Portugal became economically dependent on Great Britain, not altogether to her own good. The record of friendship suffered a brief interruption in 1889, when colonial troops under Serpa Pinto made an attempt to bridge the gap between Portuguese East Africa and Angola on the west coast, and so interpose a barrier to British expansion into what is now Rhodesia. After a severe crisis the dispute was adjusted. During the Boer War relations were more than amicable.

It is upon England's invitation, as we know, that Portugal has joined in the fray at this late hour. But it is also probable that Portugal was a willing party. She may have welcomed such a step as one way out of the domestic troubles which have afflicted the country since the establishment of the Republic in 1910. Partisan differences may be expected to disappear before a common enemy. At the same time, the risk is not a heavy one. There is no way in which Germany can strike at Portugal except by an isolated submarine attack on Portuguese ships. Neither is there much chance of Portugal's coming into contact with the German forces on land. The Portuguese army would hardly be felt if by any chance it should be brought to the front, and of that there is very little chance. It is a safe war for the little republic.

What, then, does England stand to gain by her new ally? The confiscated German shipping may be of some help in the present heavy strain on the British commercial fleet. But that is hardly the main motive. For Britain's real aim we must look outside of Europe, to the South Atlantic and to Africa. With Portugal formally in the war, her island possessions are available as operating centres for British cruisers. Madeira lies some seven hundred miles southwest of Gibraltar. Eight hundred miles further south lie the Cape Verde Islands. These islands are on the great trade routes between South Africa and Great Britain, and it is along these trade routes that German raiders did their heaviest work at the beginning of the war, and again during the recent exploits of the Moewe. The case of the Appam was a blow to British pride, and Winston Churchill might point to the Moewe and her bag of 60,000 tons of Allied shipping as an instance of lack of efficiency on the part of the British navy. Madeira and the Cape Verde Islands offer facilities for a closer safeguarding of the ocean routes to Africa.

For the situation within Africa the action of Portugal may have broad significance. Portuguese East Africa or Mozambique, and West Africa or Angola, comprise nearly 800,000 square miles, though with a thin population of less than ten millions. Rumors of the disposal of these colonies to Great Britain are not recent. It is not impossible that part of the understanding between Great Britain and Portugal has reference to the latter's African empire. Portuguese East Africa lies between Natal and the Transvaal and German East Africa. Its acquisition would leave the latter surrounded by British territory on the north and south and Belgian territory on the west. Angola lies north of German Southwest Africa. The latter is now in British possession, so that the acquisition of Angola would make the British dominions on the west coast stretch from the Cape to the mouth of the Congo. Against German East Africa an active campaign is now under way. Before the end of the war this last of Germany's colonies is likely to go the way of the others. In that case, British territory on the east coast would run from the Cape to the Sudan, and so to the Mediterranean. The dream of Cecil Rhodes would be realized.

"THE SPIRIT OF THE WARRING NATIONS."

In the March number of the *Educational Review*, the leading place is given to an article under the above title, it being the translation of a lecture by Ernst Hoffmann, delivered, when the war was half a year old, in the Aula of the Mommsen Gymnasium at Charlottenburg, and published in a German educational magazine. One does not hazard much in conjecturing the reason for the selection. Ernst Hoffmann is not, so far as we know, a man of special note. It is the mental attitude of the article, not the distinction of its author, that recommends it to attention; the attitude being that of a scholar whose intellect has not been submerged by his patriotism, for whom history did not begin yesterday and will not end to-morrow, and who, while insisting on the greatness of Germany's contribution to civilization and culture, recognizes that the pursuit of ideals other than hers has an equal claim on the esteem of mankind. How large may be the class of whom this attitude is representative, we cannot venture to estimate; but any reminder that it exists is welcome.

The pervasive idea of the article is that of a contrast, but not a mutual hostility, between the Germanic and the Latin spirit. In the history of modern civilization, there have been two supreme manifestations of the Latin spirit. The first was embodied in the Renaissance, the second stamped itself upon the world in that eighteenth-century movement of enlightenment which found its climax in the French Revolution. Into the philosophy of these great cultural upheavals, as expounded in the article, we cannot here enter. What is of acutest interest, in view of the strange aberrations that have marked so many German utterances in these strange times, is the sanity of the writer's estimate of the relative parts played by Germany and non-Germany. "All this," he says, after paying a glowing tribute to the intellectual and spiritual triumphs of the Renaissance, "was Latin culture, and . . . represented a mental development which can never be lost, but which will continue to influence mankind forever." Again, as to the rationalistic awakening of the eighteenth century:

> In the eighteenth century, the French mind united with the English to put its stamp upon a period of civilization which in turn was a guide to the whole western world, and which exerted a pronounced influence upon it. . . . The tendencies of the enlightenment reached Germany more promptly than did those of the Renaissance, but they came to us in a broad stream from Scotland and France only to lose their depth and to become choked on German soil. In France we find the glorious names of Voltaire, Rousseau, Diderot, D'Alembert, Montesquieu; at home we have only men of the rank of Engel, Garve, and Mendelssohn.

That the distinctive merits of Germany's share in the advancement of civilization and culture do not fail of their due, goes without saying. The eighteenth-century *Aufklärung* was for Germany but a "preparatory epoch"; the German people were not content to regard enlightenment as in itself sufficient; it is by the fuller and richer ideal of the Greek spirit that German civilization is animated. "Kant and Herder, Goethe and Schiller, Fichte and Humboldt, were the fathers of our rebirth," a rebirth which is a revival and "further development" of Hellenism. In the exposition of this idea we are occasionally led into a metaphysical maze which to the untutored Anglo-Saxon mind is somewhat baffling; but we come back to good going again when, in sum, we are told such simple truths as that "in view of the differences between the foreign and the German spirit, it is important for them not to be hostile, but rather to supplement each other," and that "the greatest advance of mankind could be obtained by the coöperation of the two forces."

Happy will be the day when discussions of national qualities and national claims shall once more turn on these higher issues and be conducted in this serener spirit. It is rather because of its suggestion of that better time to come than for the sake of its actual content that we have drawn attention to Herr Hoffmann's lecture. The Germany that we loved to think of before that terrible August of 1914 blotted it out of our memory will, we trust, in some not too distant day, again be the Germany of our thoughts. What the war has borne in upon the consciousness of all the world is that alongside that Germany there had been growing up, in decade after decade of militarist megalomania, the Germany of which Lord Bryce speaks in his latest article—a Germany which, as he says, he cannot believe represents the German people as he has known them ever since he studied at a German university more than fifty years ago. Unfortunately, under the lead of a military caste, and the stimulation of a false philosophy which reached the proportions of an obsession, the nation itself has, beyond a doubt, been deeply infected with the doctrines that have been put into action by its Government. The war for which that Government is responsible opened with the shameless violation of a sacred obligation. In its prosecution there has been, to quote the words of Bryce, "a reversion to ancient methods of savagery which marked the warfare of bygone ages," such as constitutes "a challenge to civilized mankind, to neutrals as well as to the belligerent states." From the mental disease which has made such a thing possible, it must be the hope of all mankind that Germany may speedily and thoroughly recover.

UPS AND DOWNS OF PROHIBITION.

Surprisingly little attention has been given to Vermont's confirmation of her choice of local option over prohibition by a vote that fell not very far short of two to one. The Green Mountain State might have been expected to prefer the more rigorous policy. It is agricultural, and the country is in the midst of a wave of prohibition that threatens to sweep over sections hitherto regarded as irrevocably "wet." Yet the State displayed no such uncertainty as that which left Maine wabbling so long after the polls closed upon her election in 1911 that most newspaper readers never learned just what the result was. In a total vote of 120,000, Maine was finally declared to have reaffirmed her prohibition amendment by a majority of 758. Vermont, with only ten cities of more than 5,000 each to Maine's twenty-three, cast 18,000 ballots for prohibition and 32,000 against it. Thirteen years ago, she repealed the prohibition amendment which she had adopted in 1852, the majority for repeal being 729, almost exactly that by which Maine held on to her amendment in 1911. Since then, fifteen States have adopted prohibition, constitutional or statutory, and only one, New Hampshire, has given it up, her law having been virtually set aside so long ago as 1889.

Vermont is thus apparently setting herself across the current. Or has the crest of the prohibition wave passed? Sixty years ago, there was a movement for prohibition which seemed like the beginning of the end. In 1850, Vermont passed a prohibitory law and Ohio one prohibiting the sale of liquor to be drunk on the premises. In 1851, Illinois imitated Ohio, and Ohio put a prohibition amendment into her Constitution. The next year, Massachusetts and Rhode Island joined the procession, and Vermont strengthened her law. In 1854, Connecticut fell into line. The following year saw a great breach made in the liquor ramparts. Delaware, In-

diana, Iowa, Michigan, Nebraska, New Hampshire, and even New York went "dry." No other year has witnessed so many victories for the cause. But defeat was only less swift. Illinois had already repealed her law of 1851. New York's statute was declared unconstitutional the year following its passage. Delaware repented in 1857; Indiana, Iowa, and Nebraska in 1858. Rhode Island's excess of virtue held out until 1863, Connecticut's nine years longer, and Massachusetts and Michigan fell together in 1875. Of the thirteen States which, between 1850 and 1855, had adopted prohibition, only three retained it twenty years later. Of these three, Ohio gave it up in 1883, and New Hampshire and Vermont in 1902.

Some States seem to enjoy the process of adoption and repeal. Massachusetts had fallen from grace much earlier than 1875, but, as her repeal in 1868 was promptly followed by readoption the next year, it appears hardly fair to date her final downfall earlier than the later year. As if to make a convincing demonstration of her uncertainty, she weakened the law in 1870 and strengthened it again three years afterwards, two years prior to wiping it off the statute book. Even Maine went back upon prohibition after ten years of it, in 1856. Two years of liquor, however, was enough to restore her erring feet to the narrow way. Rhode Island tried prohibition three times, from 1852 to 1863, from 1874 to 1875, and from 1886 to 1889. Two States besides Maine are enjoying their second trial of it. Alabama adopted it in 1908, repealed it in 1911, and readopted it in 1915. Tennessee tried it first as long ago as 1838, when three years of it was enough for her. In 1909, she experimented with it again, the later trial still proceeding. All of these efforts have been of the "State-wide" sort, of which the "Pocket Cyclopedia of Temperance" remarks: "Prohibition has been passed and repealed, enacted by popular vote and repealed, passed as strong legislation and afterwards so progressively weakened to license that one cannot put his finger upon the exact date when prohibition ceased to apply." The record of towns and villages, many of which vote upon the question every year, only emphasizes this wavering.

The spread of prohibition presents certain peculiarities. Rural sections vote it upon urban peculiarities, as in Maine. Citizens of one ward or county vote saloons out of their neighborhood, but hope that the adjoining districts will be kind enough to retain them. The most recent development is the enacting of a law ostensibly for prohibition, which permits the citizen to import a fixed number of gallons or quarts a month. Presumably, a State so enacting is a prohibition State, since it strictly forbids the manufacture or sale of liquor within its borders. As the limit of gallons and quarts it imposes, however, is often higher than the average consumed in non-prohibition States, the net effect of its legislation is merely to alter the source of the citizen's supply. Vermont, it may be noted, was not choosing between prohibition and license, but between prohibition and local option; that is, between no liquor and the privilege of choosing between prohibition and license. In voting to leave it an open question for communities to settle for themselves, Vermont was acting in accordance with the ancient principle of local self-government. With the present opposition between town and country upon the matter, this would seem to be the only equitable course.

Foreign Correspondence

THE UNITED STATES AND CONDITIONS OF PEACE.

By JAMES F. MUIRHEAD.

LONDON, February 24.

It is as evident as it was inevitable that the mind of America is becoming more and more occupied with praiseworthy thoughts and schemes bearing on some attempt, by mediation or otherwise, to hasten the end of the war. We need not linger over such crude expedients as Mr. Ford's Peace Mission, foredoomed to failure and bound to excite a ridicule that seems cruel in connection with the high-minded seriousness of its hopes and intentions. If we were to believe the official or semi-official assurances published in the press, we should also have to assume that the visits to London, Paris, and Berlin of a singularly able and astute American politician, who is also (we are told) an intimate associate of President Wilson, had no direct bearing on the question of peace negotiations. Rightly or wrongly, however, the ordinary mass of the British public (at whose opinion alone I venture to guess) reads these assurances with very tepid conviction. An interesting attempt made by Mr. Hilaire Belloc to state in an American journal the attitude of the Allies and why they cannot at present consider any proposal looking towards peace with Germany, has brought on his head a shower of American comment, which, it seems to me, besides showing some misunderstanding of Mr. Belloc, also fails in certain points to appreciate the fundamental conditions of the case.

The statement of Mr. Belloc on which the chief criticisms converge is that the Allies will consider the war a failure unless they can reduce the enemy to impotence. This, apparently, has been interpreted as meaning that we shall go on until (as I have heard it picturesquely put) we have reduced Germany to a sort of mere black hole in the map of Europe. Mr. Belloc's critics seem to think that we have a personal and undying grudge against each individual German, that our gaze is fastened simply on the crimes of the past, and that our future action will have no relation to any action of Germany that is not of the nature of military success or failure. It is argued that the state of mind which Mr. Belloc's statement represents is rather military than political, and also that it will tend to pass away in proportion to the success of the Allied arms. (Just so I have heard it argued that the feelings of England towards the United States would be very much more cordial if we had been more victorious in the field.)

This judgment seems to ignore certain important factors and hardly pierces to the root of the matter. As Mr. Wickham Steed has put it, our aim, if success attends us, is "to impose conditions of peace so just and far-sighted that Europe would be freed for ever from scientific barbarism." This definition points quite clearly to certain weaknesses in the American criticisms of Mr. Belloc. In the first place, what we really wish to make impotent is a doctrine or an idea, not a state or a people. It is Germany in its present faith, not a Germany of a totally different complexion. If Germany proves herself wholly unchangeable, if her methods in this war are really the outgrowth of something fundamental and ineradicable in the German character, then indeed we might consider it our duty to fight on until either she or we were reduced to impotence. But to many of us it seems inconceivable that this can be the case. We have to admit that there appears to be a certain class, or group, or coterie of Germans who have outlawed themselves forever; but we prefer to believe, and we do believe, that the bulk of the German people has been deluded and deceived, that it is passing through a stage of temporary, not incurable, insanity.

We are not out for a peace of vindictiveness or retribution; we are out for a peace that will guarantee us against any recrudescence of the aggression that brought on the war. The most welcome way in which this might be effected would undoubtedly be some undeniable change of heart in Germany. Unfortunately, for the time being, the only likely method to bring this about appears to be the infliction of a crushing military disaster. We do not believe, as some pacifists seem to do, that nothing can be done or will be done by the mere defeat of anybody. History abounds with instances in which the principle for which the victors fought has been established, while that for which the vanquished fought has disappeared from civilization. The step is not so far, as some would have us believe, from the conviction that "militarism does not pay" to the conviction that "militarism is an evil to be eradicated." It may be true that, in the ultimate analysis of the case, the cure must come from within Germany, that militarism cannot be suppressed from the outside; but it may also very well be that the jog that helps the solution to crystallize may be applied by an external agent. If Prussian militarism were rendered helpless, we should look for no other form of impotence.

Another point which Americans seem sometimes to forget is the historically unique character of this war. It is not like the Russo-Japanese War, the American-Spanish War, the British-Boer War, or even the Franco-German War of 1870-71. In all of these,

the antagonists played the game, or (at the very worst) professed to play the game, and when they transgressed, did so apologetically or hypocritically. In this war the deliberate doctrine of one side has been that necessity knows no law, that all means are justifiable for a military end, that the distinction between combatants and non-combatants is obsolete, and so forth. It may be consistent with American nature (perhaps I should rather say, with American *distance*) to talk excitedly for a short time over such an episode as the sinking of the Lusitania, and then forget it. We cannot forget it—yet. In no previous war, so far as I remember, have men of the sober, humane, and philosophic type of Lord Bryce and Sir Frederick Pollock had to put their names to such documents as the Report of the Committee on Alleged German Atrocities in Belgium. It is impossible for us yet to talk as calmly of peace with Germany as we could of peace with (say) Russia after the Crimean War. Germany as a whole has not yet disavowed these methods of warfare. And we are still at the stage where we consider it would be treachery to civilization for us to treat with Germany as if she differed in no degree from nations who have carried on "honorable" warfare in the past. It is for Germany to put herself in a position to make this possible. A new Germany would not find it difficult to make us realize that our task was done. If the United States can help to bring this about, she will fulfil a great destiny. In any case, she need not hope for much sympathy or coöperation from the British public for mediation on any other lines. We cannot consider a draw or a stalemate "peace," because that would be tantamount to abandoning the high principles for which we imagine we are fighting.

ARMENIA AND FRENCH MILITARY HISTORY—IN THE TRACK OF XENOPHON.

By STODDARD DEWEY.

PARIS, February 26.

Present history is so swift in the making that what I write to-day may seem past and over by the time it is printed. In reality, an incalculable past becomes present to us in what is happening. Erzerum—*Arx Romanorum*, the "citadel of the Romans"—is itself but of yesterday, built by Emperor Theodosius in the beginning of the fifth century after Christ.

Moses, of Khorene, who was living in those days, proudly maintained that his Armenian people dated from the Deluge, since its first chief was Noah's grandson—Haïg, son of Japhet. There is a fine mixture of historical feeding in his life of Haïg, who is said to have killed his second cousin, Nimrod, after helping to build the Tower of Babel, from which we are all suffering now. And this was somehow at Mossûl, which is not Babylon at all, but Nineveh, and takes its present name from the "muslin" traffic.

If you do not believe all this, the fact is that the Russian army is supposed at this writing to be sending one of its divisions down to Mossûl, on the way to meet the English muddling along towards Bagdad. Sardanapalus and Mithridates, Haroun-al-Raschid, Ghenghis Khan, and Tamerlane mix and mingle there. A proper professor, taking his daily newspaper for a text, might get half the history of civilization, in its advances and retreats, into his comments. For the existence of all mankind, like that of each single man, and like all existence at every moment of time, according to the scholastics, is a flux—*Existentia est in fluxu*. That is why the Allies are hurrying together to hinder the threatened backward flow of civilization.

A great deal of the archæology of all this region has been worked out by French explorers and scholars, perhaps the major part of it. It is not all old and musty—and that is why it deserves notice in Paris correspondence. Col. Arthur Boucher was long past the age of obligatory military service at the breaking out of this war, which so mingles time and space. He enlisted voluntarily, and has won mention in orders of the day at the front. In the dozen years of his activity in military history before the war, he showed great clairvoyance as to the present situation. From 1911 to 1913 alone he published three "strategic studies—France victorious in the war of to-morrow; the offensive against Germany; Belgium independent forever." The worth of his military views I am incompetent to estimate, although his titles hit the present nail on the head. What interests us here is that he has spent a lifetime in the study of military tactics, as exemplified in this region where Grand Duke Nicholas commands.

His chief book is a military comment on Xenophon's "Anabasis," following the expedition of the Ten Thousand mile by mile through all the country traversed. He had a missionary—a French friar, of engineering skill—measure the out-of-the-way route. In the days when college students found Xenophon compulsory, what an aid the French colonel would have given us! In these elective days, such aid may electioneer for Xenophon, whose book Col. Boucher agrees with Napoleon in recommending as the "handbook of an officer." The marches that concern us, in the light of these Russian repetitions, are chiefly in the fourth book of the "Anabasis"—just beyond the three books once demanded for college preparation.

On October 24 Xenophon, with his Greeks, was in the neighborhood of the "deserted city" of Nineveh, where their enemies were sheltered. He no longer speaks of "advancing," but contents himself with noting "marches." They were now in their retreat, beset with the wintry conditions just overcome by the Russian general in his advance. Near by, at what is now Mossûl, he notes the old wall of bricks, fifty feet thick, and based on polished stone. He says cautiously that "the story is that Medea, wife of the King of the Medes," and "Jupiter, with his thunder," had something to do with the fall of the great city. Its foundation was as long before him as he is before us, and we know more about it than he did; but his account makes us wonder if Grand Duke Nicholas will not be turned into Jupiter in some long-off traveller's tale. The land was desolate enough in Xenophon's time. Under Turkish rule, it has become the abomination of desolation which the Hebrew prophet foresaw. Is not the reversal of all this an issue of this war?

The grandson of the Mithridates who was lying in wait here for the Greeks, made his peace with Alexander the Great when the Greeks came again. Xenophon was marching towards the country of the Karduchi, who are our Kurds, that have been massacring Armenians and retreating before Russian liberators and avengers. Where he left the River Tigris, he found inhabited villages paying toll to the Kurds. Now there is not a village left before them.

It was a fertile plain, growing olives and wheat and rice and many vegetables profitable to man; and it has always been so, whenever war suffers man to live and do a little work. The Greeks came to a crossing of the caravan roads—southward to Babylon, which the English have now passed; eastward to Ecbatana, where the Russians are invading Persia; westward to Asia Minor, which is the final stronghold of the Turks; and north, across mountains, towards the Kurds. By the time this is read, it will be known how Grand Duke Nicholas has chosen at this crossing of his roads. He comes down here to the Tigris for England's sake, where Xenophon was going just the other way more deviously towards Erzerum, which was not even a village then.

A fighting place for both of them is the height of Brin Awal—where Abel was wounded—for this region is an accredited site of the Garden of Eden, where the four rivers rise. If you do not believe it, here is the fact again—one of them has kept its name, Euphrates. If the Allies, or the Russians alone, can but bring peace to Armenia and coerce the Kurds, archæologists assuredly will find here a paradise of their own.

On the 19th of November Xenophon and his Greeks were at Bitlis, and on the 22d at Mush, and on the 29th at Melaz Kert, where the Russians are while waiting to go further. Such names crop up in to-day's cablegrams. Xenophon writes like a good guidebook:

"Toward noon, we set out on our march across Armenia, through a country all plainland and low hills. There were no villages near the river, because of the Kurds. . . . After three marches, we came to palaces surrounded by numerous villages full of provisions. While the army was bivouacking, a great deal of snow fell during the night. We saw none of the enemy, and, on account of the deep snow, we seemed to be quite secure. We found all sorts of excellent provisions—cattle, wheat, old wine with a *bouquet*, dried raisins, and vegetables of every kind. . . . During the night, such quantities of snow fell that it covered the munitions and the men that were sleeping, and benumbed the limbs of our beasts of burden. We had a deal of trouble in getting them up, for the snow communicated a kind of heat to what it covered, so long as it did not melt. Xenophon arose, half-naked, and went to splitting wood; and another, too, began. Then everybody jumped up and built fires and anointed their bodies. We had found a great many kinds of grease to use for this, such as olive oil, lard, oil of sesame and bitter almonds, and turpentine."

Except for the turpentine, I imagine the Russians would have eaten the oils for internal combustion. They have had like experience as they crept round to Erzerum, where even a German officer thought no one would brave the snows.

So history repeats itself. Is there a moral? Following round about Noah's Mountain of Ararat, Xenophon and his Greeks got to Trebizond, whither the Russians are aiming—but the Greeks went home instanter. Perhaps the Russians will stay—nothing can be worse than Turks, personally amiable, but unspeakable under German Kultur. And this is the lesson—civilization must come back here—even by spiral movement.

FLOODS IN HOLLAND—GERMAN ADVANCES TO FLEMINGS REBUFFED.

By A. J. BARNOUW.

THE HAGUE, February 15.

"Friends are as dangerous as enemies," said De Quincey, and the Dutchman has lately experienced the truth of the saying. While living for more than a year with the threat of war upon his mind, he felt some sense of safety in being surrounded by water, his old ally in the wars against Spain and France. But like an all too ready supporter, foolishly anxious to show what he can perform if called upon, the friendly element has suddenly made an inroad upon the land it was meant to protect, turning rich pasture into ponds, making ferrymen of farmers, and of cows strange monsters of the sea. There was a moment, in the night of January 13, when the Isle of Marken, that picturesque place of pilgrimage for many an American tourist, was submerged altogether, tiny islands of roof being the only traces left of it on the face of the sea. And when the tide began to lag, and the island slowly rose from the deep, it appeared to have been cut in two by the pressure of the surge.

The country has been taken by surprise. The nation lived in a naïve trust in the efficiency of modern engineering and the latest methods of dike architecture. Floods which drowned whole "polders," with towns and villages and farms, seemed calamities of the past, recorded in the annals of history and in grandmothers' diaries, but never to be described again in the columns of a daily paper. And now, for more than a week, the Dutch journals have impressed their readers with long, dreary accounts of farms destroyed, of people drowned, of cattle lost, of pasture spoiled by the salt water, which leaves the soil it has soaked barren for years to come.

"When the steed is stolen, the stable-door is locked," says the proverb. The Dutch have a version suited to the nature of their country: "When the calf is drowned, the well is drained." It is difficult for the uninitiated in the mysteries of hydraulic architecture to decide whether in this instance the calf might have been saved by better foresight on the part of those in authority. The afterwise, acting the prophet just a day too late, are rife on occasions like these: "If they had drained the Zuyder Zee, this would not have happened. The necessary outlay of millions they shrank from in their misguided economy will now have to be spent on reclaiming the land from the monster they might have tamed." But others bless the course of events by which the Zuyder Zee was kept intact. "For if the inland sea," they say, "had been pent up in narrower bounds, the force of the surge would have been intensified, and dikes that stemmed the danger in the late storm would have succumbed." *Du choc des opinions jaillit la vérité.* The recent flood may have drowned great value in lives and possessions; it has also stirred to the surface of public interest a question of vital importance to the nation, which, after this, will not allow it to sink back into the mud of neglect and indifference.

Just before the flood swept away all interest in other topics of the day, there was much talk among the Dutch about the so-called Flamification of the University of Ghent, the latest German bait to catch the Flemings in the nets of Pan-Germanism. The University of Ghent has always been an eyesore to the Flamingants, being a fortress of Walloon influence and French thought in the very heart of Flanders, and its cession to the Flemish was one of the principal, if not the principal, claims on the programme of the Flemish movement. Will the Flemings accept at the hands of the conqueror what their own Government has up to now refused to give them? A prominent group of Flemish leaders has already given an answer to that question: Mr. Karel Weyler, Councillor of the city of Antwerp, and Mr. J. van Menten, editor of *Het Handelsblad*, a journal of Antwerp, have addressed a request, signed by several well-known Flamingants, to the Governor-General of Belgium, Freiherr von Bissing, asking him to cancel his decision with regard to the Flamification of the University of Ghent. Among the signatures figures that of Mr. Louis Franck, leader of the Liberal Parliamentary faction, who, before the war, together with Mr. Van Cauwelaert, leader of the Roman Catholics, and Mr. Anseele, of the Socialist party, had proposed a bill by which the University of Ghent should be ceded to the Flemings. And Mr. Van Cauwelaert, who is now at The Hague, where he edits a weekly, *Vry België* (see the *Nation* of November 18, 1915), declares in his paper that the Flemings will have nothing to do with Freiherr von Bissing's "Hochschule": "A Flemish university, created under such conditions, will remain without professors and without students." The Germans, frustrated by this Flemish attitude, are now trying to find candidates for the new professorships among university men in Holland. But here they will meet with hardly better success. Apart from a few idolators of Pan-Germanism, the learned editors of *De Toekomst* (see the *Nation*, May 6, 1915), no Dutch scholar will feel inclined to further Pan-German ambitions by the gratification of his own.

International Democracy

By RICHARD DANA SKINNER.

Quite aside from the excitement over preparedness in Congress, Mr. Richard Olney and other distinguished Americans with no political axes to grind have been asking the very pertinent question, "Just what are we preparing to defend? Are we, or are we not, ready to assume the military and naval protection of Latin America?"

This, of course, harks back to the unfortunate Monroe Doctrine, which has been so stretched and disfigured in the course of ninety-three years that some persons find it a little bewildering just now, and are almost ready to throw it over in disgust. On the other hand, not a few prominent men entertain for it a semi-religious veneration which prevents their ever scanning it impartially. It is plainly high time for us to jump from the perch of theory to the good solid ground of facts. It is time to find out, for example, whether the Doctrine was ever intended to remain the sole property of the United States; and, if not, it is more than time to find out how we can obtain the coöperation of Latin America, and just what that coöperation would mean to us in terms of men and guns and ships, but, above and beyond all, in effective moral power.

I suggested in an article in the *Nation* last September that, for the sake of better inter-American relations, it was imperative for us to obtain a new sanction for the Monroe Doctrine, and in this way to make it the declaration of all America. Since then the Pan-American Scientific Congress, in Washington, has featured this very question. There has even been some vague discussion of Pan-American alliance. We are slowly becoming impressed with the possibilities of American coöperation as an improvement on the so-called big-brother attitude of Monroe. But there are still so many influential men who regard the Monroe Doctrine as immutable that their very number may prevent any effective expansion of our Latin-American policy.

Probably Monroe himself and his Secretary of State, Adams, would have been more amazed than any one else if they could have looked ahead some ninety years and have seen the position held by their jointly written message. We have excellent proof that they considered their declaration essentially an emergency measure, intended to hold back the Holy Alliance, and more or less of a makeshift until a more complete and wholesome policy could be arranged. And many of their advisers felt the same way.

Madison, for example, writing to Senator James Barbour two days after Monroe's message was sent to Congress, says: "This hemisphere must be protected against the doctrines and despotisms which degrade the other. No part of it can be as secure as it ought to be if the whole be not so. And if the whole be sound and safe, the examples of its principles will triumph gradually everywhere." In other words, Madison intimates very clearly the relation of Monroe's message to the whole of America rather than to any one part. He asks to have all of America sound in principles of government; he asks, also, to have it safe.

But Adams himself gives the plainest assurance of the real intentions of the Monroe Doctrine. In view of Adams's share in writing it, his interpretation should have tremendous weight, especially at the present moment, when the only strong reason for not expanding our policy seems to be an absurd fear of departing from a time-honored rule. Only two years after Monroe's message, Adams sent a message of his own to Congress describing some of the good measures which ought to result from a Pan-American congress at Panama. Among other things, he said:

"An agreement between all the parties represented at the meeting, that each will guard, by its own means, against the establishment of any future European colony within its borders, may be found advisable. *This was more than two years since announced by my predecessor* [italics mine] as a principle resulting from the emancipation of both American continents. It may be so developed to the new southern nations that they will all feel it as an essential appendage to their independence."

Certainly nothing could be clearer. Of course, it is still possible for those who love isolated texts to say that Monroe said nothing of this sort in his message. But, if we put Adams's message and Monroe's together, as common-sense demands we should do, there remains but one distinct conclusion. The Monroe Doctrine was intended merely as a temporary declaration to hold off European aggression until a real American system could be effected.

The impression that the United States meant to assume a big-brother attitude towards Latin America is both false and stupid. It has gained ground simply through our own carelessness in not giving the publicity and prominence to Adams's message that it signally deserves. We are doing nothing cowardly or unprecedented to-day in suggesting that the Latin-American republics should bear a fair share of the burden of American defence. Surely, if Adams could ask their co-operation only three years after we recognized their independence, when their economic life was at its lowest ebb, it is not unreasonable of us to ask the same thing now.

Probably the paramount result of making the Monroe Doctrine truly pan-American would be moral. It is true that some of the South American armies are considerably larger, in proportion to population, than our own, and that, with the construction of the projected Pan-American Railroad, spurred on by international coöperation, the defence of the two continents would be made far easier. But for Europe or Asia, the supreme thought would be the certainty of a united determination among the American republics to defend as their own the rules of international law and the territorial integrity of the American continents. With this determination a declared policy, instead of a vague supposition, the task of invading any one part of America would have to be figured not only in terms of national resistance, but of a Pan-American uprising.

A Pan-American Monroe Doctrine is really a sort of moral preparedness. But it is also far more than that. If put into effect, it would mark the first practical realization of a new respect for international law. It is one thing to speak of a United States of Europe; it is quite another thing to bring that union into being. A hundred of the gravest difficulties are in the way. Differences of race and language are the least of these. Differences of government and national ideals are the most important. But it is precisely those last differences that we do not have in the American continents.

We have differences of race, language, and religion. But we certainly have republican forms of government in common, we have natural resources in common, we have newness in common, and, above all, we have national ideals in common. These are common interests which Europe cannot have for many long years to come. If international federation, as distinct from international alliance, is to start anywhere, it should start among the American republics. If it cannot start here, where conditions are more favorable than in any other part of the world, it cannot hope to start at all, and the vision of the future is no whit less tragic than the present. The supreme duty of America is to initiate a system of international democracy now, when the European war has created a profound reaction against exclusive nationalism. The way to start is by following the wish of Adams and making the Monroe Doctrine the doctrine of all America. From that will spring a community of American interests stronger than the loose ties of commerce, and a community of American thought capable of revolutionizing the relations between sovereign states. If we set this example now, and set it generously and frankly, then there is a chance—in fact, it is the only chance—of some day making the democracy of the Americas international.

The Realism of the American Stage

THE DRAMA OF EXPOSURE AND THE REFORMING SPIRIT.

By H. deW. FULLER.

I.

The ascription of literary parentage, or of parentage in the other arts, is a matter which one is usually glad to leave to the specialist in "eternal verities." For such titles have a way of breaking down a few hours after they are set up. I recall only one such claim which has stood the test of time, and that for lack of competition—the one which has established the poet Gay as the father of English Opera. That his only conceivable children, Gilbert and Sullivan, can hardly more than have heard of their father's name has never prevented this generalization from being handed down from one textbook to another. Yet the temptation to go on genealogizing in connection with art is great, not least in the discussion which I am here undertaking. So I insist that, with quite as much plausibility as was ever effected in this case of the poet Gay, I may call Miss Ida Tarbell the mother of dramatic realism in this country. The proof seems obvious once it is formulated. It was she who gave rise to the flood of muckraking which swept over us during the first decade of the century, and it was undoubtedly the muckraking spirit which begot the first serious attempts to bring the American stage into close contact with life.

The deep impression which Miss Tarbell's excellent study of the Standard Oil Company, as well as the host of subsequent investigations by others, made upon the country at large, one still remembers vividly, and recalls how in particular young men, then just coming under the full spell of the strenuous life, were impatient because the Government did not proceed at once to "regulate" corporations and business in general. Previous inquiries of the sort, such as the Lexow and other disclosures, had been concerned only with politics, a sphere of activity about which even youth—the peculiar friends of reform—could afford to be cynical. But when the searchlight seemed to reveal rottenness in the most conspicuous examples of the business world, and then later exposed the indifference of the moneyed interests to the social conditions of the poor, the effect was generally shocking. Yet it was not until the newspapers in their news columns took up the hue and cry that writers saw here a fair field for drama. In 1905, Charles Klein brought out "The Lion and the Mouse." Not in any sense a great work, it nevertheless attacked life, in this instance the tyranny of capital, in a manner quite different from anything which had preceded it. In contrast to "The Old Homestead," "Shenandoah," "Way Down East," all of them frank melodramas, or even to the few substantial works of Augustus Thomas and Clyde Fitch, Mr. Klein's play gave a serious treatment to an American subject then commanding the widest interest. Significantly enough, it was quite different from anything which even so prolific a writer as Klein himself had yet done. Before this he had practiced the types made familiar by his contemporaries. The American stage had seen, besides the thoroughgoing melodrama, comic operas, farces, and a few sparkling comedies. The last, especially in the hands of Clyde Fitch, had dealt with the particular topics with which such English authors as Pinero and Jones have been busied—social and domestic problems of the traditional character. They had not discussed questions so bound up with the news of the day as the one which went into the making of "The Lion and the Mouse."

American drama having pretensions to realism did not henceforth ignore "news value." In 1908, shortly after the reforming spirit had entered upon the question of civic improvement, and in so doing was trailing the police, Charles Klein again came forward with a play up to the minute, "The Third Degree," which gave a vivid representation of the cruelty said to be practiced by the police in extorting confessions from prisoners. The same year saw the production of Eugene Walter's play, "The Easiest Way," a revelation of the vortex confronting girls in a special social class, and, in a somewhat similar vein, of Edward Sheldon's "Salvation Nell," which latter by its brutal downrightness shocked decorous Boston into believing it great. It did, at least, give a picture of slum life on the East Side the like of which had never before been seen on the American stage. Mr. Sheldon, in another play, took a fall out of the Boss and, at a time when there was a flare-up of the negro question, produced "The Nigger."

If the plays cited should seem scarcely numerous enough to deserve the denomination of a school, it can be shown, as we shall see by reference to the present dramatic season in New York, that they set the tone for almost the only later American products which to-day the public in general terms realistic. In so doing they started a fashion freer from foreign influence than might be supposed. One thinks of Ibsen and of the undoubted impression which he made here. Yet Ibsen, like Shaw, did little more than encourage our realists to persist in the choice of subjects which they were already making. So the material of "Ghosts" and of "Mrs. Warren's Profession" would lend itself easily to a purely muckraking treatment. Brieux falls in the same class. Pinero no doubt quickened the invention of Clyde Fitch, who, however, was out of the stream of the new American realism. At his poorest, as in "Letty," a play which is itself scarcely more than an exposure of the temptations of the working girl, Pinero may have given a hint to the author of "Common Clay." Mr. Edward Sheldon has been heartened in his "realism" to the point of

nastiness by Antoine. The one strongly marked foreign influence is to be found in Strindberg, who certainly prompted the writing of an American play of the present season, "The Unchastened Woman." It is significant that this is the one "realistic" drama of the year which can boast of a character with anything like commanding personality, however eccentric. It is so consciously an imitation as to lack significance except by way of contrast with the other American works.

Since the appearance of "The Lion and the Mouse," an American play, to be realistic, must partake of the nature of an exposure. The reason for this is that in the minds of the unthinking "news value" has supplanted the term "realism," and news value, so far as domestic affairs are concerned, has for a decade or more been largely connected with reforms. Clyde Fitch felt the pressure of the popular demand and finally yielded by writing "The City," a play produced after his death and one which is very unlike any of his other dramas. It is a turgid exposure of corrupt practices in the lives of a capitalist and his son.

II.

The connection between news value and "realism," however grotesque it may appear on second thought, is a conception so important for any consideration of the contemporary stage that it should be examined at the source. For to-day—so nice is the adjustment between the stage and life—the daily press shapes the dramatist's sense of proportion quite as much as that of the man in the street.

A study of news value will naturally be a study of a newspaper's front page. Just now it is the war that is especially featured, and though the war through the eyes of the newspapers would serve my purpose, I prefer to pass it by as being an abnormal situation. Turning to Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Bryan, we know how each felt his identity slipping from him when for a time they were consigned to the inner pages. It was not a case of their being less prominent so much as the thought that they had ceased to exist, prominence and actuality having become synonymous. This habit of thought puts queer bedfellows in the sphere of "realism." The average indiscriminate reader, by aid of the front page, jumbles the adventures of a romantic heiress in the same class with the hard-headed selfishness of a wicked corporation. Both are real and, if the reader were assured that the real in any profound sense means the typical, then both, he would reply, must be typical. What he fails to observe is that the blacker the headline the more sensational, and hence the more unusual, untypical the event described. So accustomed have we grown to reading of the startling at our daily breakfast that the startling has somehow taken its place along with breakfast as one of the fundamental realities of life.

In all this there is not that complete confusion which makes one believe everything on the front page. We realize that all that startles is not true. Yet truth, except in a rather mechanical sense, has become dissociated from the popular notion of realism. "Realism" is not logic, nor spiritual consistency, nor even brass tacks—that invariable standard before the opening of the century. It may be as specious and unconvincing as logic, if it happens to be those things which have of late been so much on the front page—statistics; it may be as airy and irresponsible as a spirit, if it chances to be non-resistant pacifism; or it may be as perennial a commonplace as brass tacks, if it happens to be prohibition. "Realism," I repeat, is news value. And news value is reform. Reform in turn appears on the front page in two stages at least. First comes the à priori nostrum, and, secondly, the detailed exposure of the conditions alluded to in this nostrum, and the exposure is the more important. Thus, a eugenist assures us that health and happiness are sacrificed by our unscientific principle of mating, and then there is a scramble on all sides for evidence to confirm him. All this is not truth or falsehood in the mind of the public, it is all a part of the front page, a part of the day's work; it is life, it is "realism."

Considerable light on this whole question may be got by a glance at the manner in which the reforming spirit is ministered to by the average reporter. One of the most recent examples is the publicity given to the discussion of a minimum wage. Here the reporter discovered precisely what the most ardent reformers desired him to discover—that girls attempting to live on less than $6 a week were close to starvation, and the implication was that no one should blame them if, under the circumstances, they sacrificed their virtue. We know how the details were played up: a carefully sketched setting of East Side life, with never a doubt expressed but that such conditions must inevitably lead to immorality. It was only after saner minds had protested vigorously that the conditions, though distressing, led to no such conclusions, and after members of the East Side itself had indignantly repudiated the easy morals attributed to them, that the news columns swung round to a more discriminating attitude. In passing I recall a perfect reflection of this sort of reasoning in a play produced a year or two ago, "Within the Law." A shop-girl, unjustly convicted of stealing in a department store, proceeded, on her release from prison, to justify such a theft on the ground that girls, by the smallness of their wages, were forced to it—or to stoop lower still. Her words were, it is true, in character, yet the tenor of the play forced the inference that she received wholehearted backing from the author. So ethical responsibility was lightly lifted from the individual and placed upon the broad shoulders of society.

Oddly enough, the average reporter, for all his concreteness, is not a genuine realist. Partly this may be because he furnishes the public with what he fancies that it wants. Yet the youth of the average reporter should also not be ignored. The miscellaneous activities of his profession do not make him so cynical that his own sympathies are not easily enlisted in behalf of the reforming spirit. A romantic by virtue of his age, he is yet occupied with hard facts; he would be unhuman if he did not so order these facts as to make them respond to his own youthful sentiments. The proof of the matter is to be found in the general absence from the newspapers of that fundamental of realism, which is sound character study. Setting, the whims and idiosyncrasies, and other superficial marks of personality are accurately caught, but character in its deeper significance is a thing which youth least of all can easily grasp. In consequence, the purveyor of news is superbly equipped to provide the general reading public with what the general reading public can easily understand and believe—a highly detailed picture tending to confirm its preconceived notions. Now, it remains to be seen whether the American dramatic "realist" is more than a glorified reporter.

III.

The present theatrical season in New York has seen the production of the following so-called serious plays, written by Americans. For convenience, they may be grouped into three categories: I. "Husband and Wife," "The House of Glass," "Pride of Race," and "Just a Woman." II. "Common Clay," "The Mark of the Beast," and "The Fear Market." III. "The Eternal Magdalene." In the first category are dramas discussing domestic problems. "Husband and Wife" might be dismissed as a faint imitation of "The Doll's House," if it were not for its tone and method of presentation. The husband, in order to gratify the expensive tastes of his wife, acquired through idleness because he is unwilling to share his business worries with her, has abstracted funds from the bank of which he is cashier; and the whole machinery of detectiveness is set going. The interest of the audience was clearly not so much in the matrimonial relations as in the exciting pursuit of a man in high social and financial position. "The House of Glass" also put the emphasis, through the agency of detectives, upon exposing the past life of a railway magnate's wife. Before marrying him she had, quite innocently, been engaged to a thief, and we have the usual hounding. "Pride of Race" is only another way of recounting "The Nigger," the lingo of eugenics being thrown in for good measure. "Just a Woman" has for its "big" scene—the only one of any consequence in the play—an elaborate courtroom scene with a sensational divorce the issue.

The second category consists of plays which air scandals of even more pronounced character. In "Common Clay" a girl of humble surroundings, having already been seduced by a man of fashion, takes the position of servant in the household of one of his friends and promptly yields to the importunities of the son of the family. At the trial to which she has brought this man

discovery is made that she is in reality the illegitimate daughter of the lawyer for the defence. "The Mark of the Beast" exposes the seducing of two young married women in high social circles. "The Fear Market" shows the downfall of the blackmailing editor of a New York society paper—again detectives. "The Eternal Magdalene" considers the question of prostitution in a large city.

What has impressed me most in this somewhat sordid array of plays is the absence of outstanding characters. The plots are recounted much after the manner of the clever reporter hot on the trail of a social theory. A reporter's findings should be regarded as only rough notes by the dramatist, quite as much as by the social philosopher. In none of the plays have I observed any studies of persons so absorbing as to make me momentarily forget the authors' evident relish for exposure. An author should not muckrake his downtrodden heroine, along with his villain, if he wishes his audience to sympathize with her. He will hardly prove her, as he too often wishes to do, to be merely the victim of unjust social conditions if the muck, even the muck of others, entirely covers her; the inference is that this is her native element. Unlike the girls living chastely on less than an "honorable" wage, she cannot rise up to confute him.

Unfortunately, the stage, like many a reformer with ideas too big for his brain, has become obsessed with problems too large for the characters portrayed. In most of these plays questions are broached which have been taxing the reformers now these many years, and though art, after the manner of "Uncle Tom's Cabin," may hope to do its bit in influencing public opinion, a dramatic representation will not be effective by making a dummy of its real spokesman. The reformer, for better or worse, approaches the individual through a theory. The dramatist, like any other artist, should, on the contrary, reach a theory through the individual. By so doing he may contrive to keep his characters alive. By any other method he will need supreme talent. Every one knows, for example, in what straits George Eliot found herself when late in her career she started out upon a novel from an abstraction, and not from a human being.

If the era of propaganda ever gives way to one of quiet reflection, playwrights are likely to discover that, for the stage, the most important thing in American life is not exposure and reform, but solid character, and that even a good conventional type of well-rooted man has lasting worth, whereas most reforms are but ephemeral. The starting point for the dramatist is hence human nature in the individual, not human nature as it is read into a whole class of beings by a fleeting theory. While the plays of exposure were having their run, I recall seeing, a couple of years ago, a mediocre play called "The Gentleman from Mississippi," the portrayal of an oratorical Senator. Because the sketch, so far as it went, was perfectly sound, I recollect that character much more vividly than I remember any portraitures of the present season. Nor am I alone in thinking that of all the political bosses, corrupt financiers, etc., that have recently been seen upon the "realistic" stage, not one has really lived.

The Princess Theatre, which has gone in much for one-act plays, has missed its opportunity in not specializing in character rather than in lurid exposure. Instead of presenting the not impossible case of a decent girl who yields up her virtue, or of civilization in the clothesless days, it might have been a profitable clearing-house for sketches of contemporary types. In a different way the *Saturday Evening Post* has provided useful material. It has published a series of skilful pictures of the average book-agent, insurance-man, and the like. In each case the fictional element was the slightest, the attempt being to furnish notes of actual experience. As there was no thought of propaganda, the sketches were marked by a good deal of variety of the kind which a dramatist might well take into account if he wishes to present life fully.

The concentration upon character-study would, of course, not prevent the dramatist from airing the large problems of the present day. Preparedness, the minimum wage, social injustice, are issues bound up with the careers of individuals, and the best way for the stage to approach them is through the bearings upon them of lives interesting first of all in themselves. If Macbeth and Lady Macbeth were not so absorbing as separate personages, it would no doubt occur to us, as it certainly did to audiences in Shakespeare's own day, that he, too, was dealing with a social question of broad significance.

IV.

In handling that other essential of genuine realism—invention—the new realist has also set his face against the wisdom of the ages. He has become highly mechanical, though not quite so mechanical as certain lyrists who, ever since the full onset of the Romantic Movement, have fancied that if you sprinkle verses with daffodils and stars and chequered shade, automatically your verses become imaginative. The new realist, while favoring the view that the appearance on the stage of a police court, a corrupt financier, and a woman not too particular about her morals, at once sets up the presumption of actuality—so easily is substance confused with treatment—is careful to elaborate his details so as not to exceed the bounds of the possible. He, like the reporter, tries to confirm a broad generalization by settings and situations so designed as to produce the effect of at least superficial verisimilitude. Take the court-room scene itself. The conscience with which this now conventional instrument is pictured greatly exceeds Shakespeare's care with reference to the similar scene in "The Merchant of Venice." Not even in his day could a lady in disguise pass herself off as a judge. In many respects Portia does not compare as a magistrate with several exemplars seen during the past year or two on the New York stage. And what playwright to-day would permit his judge the quibble resorted to by Portia in the final overthrow of Shylock? It reminds one of that poor quibble perpetrated, though with another motive, by Solomon, when asked to pronounce a famous judgment. It is odd that out of those two poor quibbles certain traits of character should have emerged so clearly that the world has never failed to see the point—the humanity of a Jew and mother love. I do not recall any illuminating examples of human nature detaching themselves from the several excellent court-room settings of the past year or two.

The great danger of mechanical realism, quite apart from its unoriginal invention, is the temptation which it offers to compare stage life with life in the world at large. Shakespeare by his very assurance in presenting an impossible situation removes from his audience the thought of any such comparison. If the situation is a pleasant invention, congruous with the main theme of the play, it furnishes a satisfying atmosphere, which does not distract the audience from concentrating upon fundamental traits of character. In the March *Century*, Mr. Harvey O'Higgins has the usual fling at traditional criticism by affirming that "If we produce a literature that bears the same relation to American life that American plumbing does, for example, we shall be doing a sane thing." This reminds me, though with a difference, of a recent criticism upon that extraordinary product known as educational efficiency. "Our desire has long been," said this critic, "to place education in the hands of the common people. Well," he concluded, "it is now there, and look at it!" Realism of the plumber kind, even if it could be achieved on the stage, would not be admirable. The absurdity of mechanical realism arises from its impotence. Try as it will, it can never quite duplicate life. Entrances and exits, the element of time, and a dozen other happenings do not take place quite thus in the world. By forcing this point the new realist is unwittingly working against the true function of art, which is to suggest in small compass much more than meets the eye and ear. By the power of suggestion the microcosm of the stage can outreach the counterpart of actual experience which it pictures. Impede this function of art, and what is there left for art to do?

In his familiar dictum, Aristotle proposed "probable impossibilities" as proper for drama. The new realist, reversing the order, prefers possible improbabilities. He is meticulous in seeing to it that nothing quite impossible shall enter into his situation. Like the business man brought up on the new efficiency, he is a stickler for psychology, and can correlate the surface facts of life plausibly. What he fails to realize is that handbook psychology does not furnish the key to character in its subtler aspects,

any more than a knowledge of mere morality qualifies one to fathom religion.

V.

If the history of the stage has shown anything, it has shown that drama cannot flourish without invention and live characters, and that within limits the existence of the one has presupposed the existence of the other. The Elizabethan's well-known love of a good story was all the more significant because it went hand in hand with his delight in drama. Let us recall that in at least one instance Shakespeare became so absorbed in a story as to forget that one Romeo and one Juliet were both dead, and that it was time to bring the play to an end. The fault is on the side of safety; it implies an overflowing interest in human conduct.

Notes from the Capital

"WHEN A MAN COMES TO HIMSELF."

The psychology of popular criticism is well illustrated by the comments we continually hear on the President's change of front towards certain subjects of national moment. The general theory seems to be that the change is very recent and rather sudden. For a fact, it is probably neither, but the product of an educational growth so gradual as to have escaped the notice of the great mass of the people well removed from the centre of public affairs, though plain enough to observers at shorter range; and the change is quite as much in his attitude towards Congress and towards his own share in the government of the republic as towards the issues which have lately taken on an acute phase.

Nominated and elected as an historical scholar and an idealist, Mr. Wilson set out with the notion of bringing the Government back into the lines which the framers of the Constitution had laid down for its guidance. He had heard and accepted the charge perpetually harped on by his party, that under Republican rule there had been a steady succession of executive usurpations of power, threatening to convert a democracy into a despotism. He deemed it his mission, therefore, to draw and maintain a rigid barrier between the respective domains of the legislative and executive branches of the Government; and as it was the American people that both branches were to serve, it seemed to him but right that the masters should know all the servants were doing, and know it at once. Hence the policy of pitiless publicity was to be linked to the principle of scrupulous non-interference; and the Administration started off with semi-weekly friendly conferences with the newspaper correspondents in Washington, at which the President was to submit himself to any and all proper interrogatories from the writers, and with personal and informal visits by the President to the Capitol, to talk over, in an easy fashion and a conciliatory spirit, the work that Congress and he had jointly in hand.

How long these relations continued unimpaired is now a matter of history. Instead of rejoicing at such an opportunity of frequent and close communion with its fellow worker, Congress as a whole looked rather askance at his innovation, as if it suspected that some scheme of favor-seeking lay hidden beneath his pleasant overtures. Sundry members even went so far as to criticise his conduct as indecorous, alleging that it squinted at the possible use of personal influence in shaping legislation. As for the press, the experiment worked both ways towards failure: the President discovered that, in order to make his meetings with the correspondents interesting enough to command their attendance, he must be prepared to go deeper into certain matters than he had counted on going, since the correspondents were not mere street-corner button-holers, but, in so many instances, had studied current questions, and were equipped for their intelligent discussion; the newspaper men, on their part, tired of conversations which simply skimmed the surface of things, and in which only one party felt at liberty to indulge in satirical repartee.

The first serious conflict between the President and Congress was brought about by the desire of both houses to adjourn after the present Tariff act was passed, and the President's insistence on their remaining in session till his programme of banking legislation had been disposed of. This clash opened Mr. Wilson's eyes to the fact that not the kindliest manner or most persuasive tongue on the part of one man will overcome the effect of the settled habit of five hundred men of dominating each the public affairs of his own little bailiwick, and that, however agreeable relations might continue while nothing vital was at stake, in time of stress the one man finds a stout stick in the hand worth a bushel of sugar plums in the offing.

It can hardly be doubted that some of the earlier stands taken by the President, which at the time subjected him to most criticism among the people, were encouraged if not inspired at his intimate counsels with the lawmakers. The shifts-about which he has since made have been on his own initiative, as witness the way Congress has received them. Henceforward, having learned his lesson of self-dependence, the chances are that he will decide for himself in what path he is to walk, always listening with becoming courtesy to adverse advice, but bearing in mind that it is he, and not his advisers, who would have to endure the chief punishment if he yielded to their steering and went wrong. How much he has taken to heart the teachings of his short experience is shown by his latest move, in meeting bluff with bluff. As he would himself phrase it in one of his sportive excursions into slang, he has said in effect to Congress: "You talk too much! Now either put up or shut up!"

One thing every Congress has to be taught: namely, that if it nags and worries a patient President into a fighting mood, he has always the possible resort of an appeal to the people, and the people invariably stand by the President against Congress, no matter whether he be wise or foolish in his position. Most of the talk about executive usurpation is bogey babble, when we get down to the bottom of it; what is decried as an attempt at usurpation, nine times in ten, is merely an effort to go ahead instead of standing still. Cleveland was denounced as a usurper when he called Congress together in a midsummer extraordinary session for the plainly avowed purpose of passing an act to repeal the Sherman silver-purchase law and when he used Federal troops to protect the United States mail from the Chicago rioters, and again when, to save the nation from a confession of bankruptcy, he sold bonds to replenish the Treasury gold reserve without obtaining the special permission of the Congress then sitting.

Mr. Wilson's tergiversations, therefore, may be traced back to his discovery that the course of a President, if he is going to leave the country, at the end of his term, further advanced than he found it at the beginning, must make his dealings with a shuffling, slack-twisted Congress more masterful than meek. He has carefully reserved the right, as a man of sober thought rather than of stubborn vanity, to change his mind as often as he is convinced that he is wrong; but on the point of subserviency it is safe to predict that he will never change back to his old position now that he has tasted some of the satisfactions of freedom. TATTLER.

Correspondence

SAFETY FIRST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is, I think, about four years ago that we first began to see, at a few crowded railway stations, the sign *Safety First!* Most of us welcomed its appearance as a much-needed warning to our national carelessness, and some of us hoped that it might possibly even be a token of a new trend in our national psychology. So, indeed, it seems to have been; for the sign spread to grade-crossings, to trains, trolley cars, and even to city streets. Its spread has continued with leaps and bounds, until at present it so dominates the minds of a large number of our citizens that they would make it the guiding principle, not only of our railways, but of our foreign policy.

The Kansas farmers are reported as expressing their notions of national duty thus: "The President has gone twice as far in 'protecting the national honor' as we folks out here want him to. He can't be too cautious to suit us. We'd keep every American off belligerent ships. We'd keep every American out of Mexico. We'd let the Japs take the Philippines and be damned, if they want 'em. The honor of the country doesn't get outside our boundaries that we can see." Nor is the New Prudence confined to the Middle West. Many an Eastern correspondent of our Eastern papers urges the same safe-and-sane course. Our leaders in Congress insist that the principles of international law are a "mere technicality." And 142 of our Representatives vote that the rights of our citizens should be surrendered because apparently the chief duty of our Government is (in the words of the McLemore resolution) "to offer its citizens the best possible advice, counsel, and assistance in avoiding the hazards of war."

Why, indeed, insist on the rights of our citizens? It would be so simple to warn them off belligerent ships, and thus avoid trouble! Why, in fact, protect our citizens at all outside of our own borders? If they go into places where foreign Powers have plainly told them they must not go, they do it at their peril, and ought not to involve the rest of us. Why insist on the technicality of their "rights"? Safety first! We believe, of course, in the rights of neutrals; but to seek to preserve them at a time like this is far from prudent. We should, indeed, stand manfully for them in times of peace; but to do so while a fearful war is raging might be dangerous. Why take a chance? Safety

first. Of course, we respect and value international law. No nation is more loyal to it than we, and none would go farther towards building it up and safeguarding it by Hague Tribunals and arbitration treaties. But to seek to enforce it forcibly against a belligerent Power that might resist us by force—might this not conceivably lead to war? Indeed, in a good cause we should be willing to throw down the gauntlet to Powers like Spain or Colombia. But to thwart and irritate Germany and Austria would show great lack of discretion. Yes, we are devoted to the rights of man, and we hold international law profoundly sacred; but—Safety first!

Our country has had many popular mottoes, expressive of the predominant sentiments of its passing generations. Here are a few of them: "Taxation without representation is tyranny." "All men are born free and equal." "Millions for defence, but not one cent for tribute." "Liberty and union, now and forever, one and inseparable." "Government of the people, by the people, for the people"—yes, one might even add that popular by-word of twenty years ago, *"Cuba libre."* Some of these mottoes, it must be confessed, were sensational; some were a bit sentimental. But I think it is plain that they were all idealistic. Each of them expressed the faith of the successive generations of Americans that liberty and human rights were things worth living and dying for. It will be a sorry commentary on the present generation of Americans if the future historian shall be forced to record that we who live in the days of the world's great crisis substituted for the ideal of liberty the ideal of prudence, and in place of the maxims of our fathers chose as the national American motto Safety first!

JAMES BISSETT PRATT.

Williamstown, Mass., March 9.

THE SORBONNE IN TIME OF WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Perhaps a few words about conditions in the Latin Quarter, and more especially at the Sorbonne, as seen by an American student, may be of interest to some of your readers who have lived here in days less turbulent. I hasten to add less turbulent for France, for in the history of the Latin Quarter one would have to go back many years to find a period more peaceful. Indeed, the place might well appear unknown to those whose memory recalls the feverish intensity of life and frequent violent outbursts of days gone by.

Like almost all the rest of Paris, the Quarter is dark at night and extremely quiet. Many of the cafés and restaurants are closed; some shops are closed for the "duration of the war"; many, many pensions have ceased operations, and signs for rooms and apartments are innumerable. All libraries are closed at night, but all theatres and cinemas are open—and doing good business.

The Quarter is quiet because the students are so greatly diminished in numbers. Accurate statistics as to the exact enrolment are not available, but an index to the general conditions in that respect, and the effects on scholastic life produced by the war, is furnished by a comparison of the following figures of the Ecole des Hautes Etudes: In 1913-14 there were enrolled 473 students, of whom 187 were foreigners; among them 39 English, 30 Germans, 19 Russians, 17 Americans. In 1914-15 the total enrolment was 202, of whom 57 were foreigners; 15 Russians, one Englishman, and one American. This year the total number enrolled is about one hundred, and I am told that the foreign representation is about the same as last year. So far as I have been able to ascertain, the writer is the only American representative.

The native element which kept up the enrolment last year is diminished by the calling of new classes to the colors. The same effect is, of course, felt everywhere else, though perhaps not always is the decline in percentage so great, on account of the fact that the Ecole des Hautes Etudes is attended for the most part by older students, who would be the first to go. The above figures are especially interesting for the light they throw on the foreign representation, always an interesting feature of life in the Quarter. They are valuable precisely because the Ecole des Hautes Etudes is extremely popular with foreign students, and the number enrolled there gives an idea of their representation. He who was wont to listen to the babble of many tongues would find them strikingly absent now. Tiny notices posted on the bulletin-boards in the Sorbonne read in substance as follows: "Germany [and there is one for each enemy], being declared to be in a state of war with France, no person of German nationality will be admitted to the Sorbonne."

For the foreign students who have the courage and for the French who have the good fortune to attend, work goes on peacefully enough. Full and regular courses are given, and one cannot but admire the splendid determination of the French professors not to let learning and scientific progress be stifled by the war. Serious intent is dominant; courage and conviction are at all times manifest. One is interested to see what effect the war has thus far produced on the thought and intellectual work, as reflected by the "public courses" given by the professors. These courses, a feature of university activity for the most part lacking in our American institutions, are here numerous and instructive, and, I may add, extremely popular. In nearly all there is an effort to connect the work in one way or another with the present situation. Some fields, of course, as history and economics, lend themselves immediately to such an application. In others the applicability is not so manifest.

The lectures of M. Denis on "The Origins of the War: Europe since 1907," are attended by enormous crowds that overfill the hall. Courses in foreign languages and literature also connect themselves with actual events, as, for example, M. Hauvette's course on "Le Sentiment national dans la littérature italienne," which has demonstrated an almost hereditary opposition in Italy to the Teutons. And, likewise, the course of M. Morel-Fatio, "De la xénophobie et surtout de la gallophobie dans la littérature espagnole du XIVe siècle à nos jours," has served to explain clearly the feeling that exists in certain elements in Spain to-day. At first sight, the connection of the courses given by M. Lefranc, a great friend and admirer of America since his two long visits there, is not so obvious. Yet, in explaining Montaigne and Rabelais he has been able brilliantly to show that they expound a philosophy admirably adapted to actual needs, and he has shown that these two authors occupy preëminent places in the favorite literature of the "poilus" in the trenches. Professor Bédier's work on the "Chanson de Roland" has just commenced. He has translated the entire poem, and is editing it in its Old French form, and there have been many dramatic moments when he read before his class at the Collège de France some of its impressive lines.

And so examples might be multiplied. Some points common to almost all may be noted in passing. Nearly every public course serves as a base of attack, directly or indirectly, against some phase of German activity; which shows that the French have not grown indifferent to the horrors perpetrated by their enemies. But sometimes one is amused at the way the subject is dragged in. The character of the audience, too, serves as ground for observation. The auditors for the most part are women and elderly men; the animated youth of ordinary times is busy elsewhere getting itself inscribed on the Livre d'Or de l'Université.

One other note often remarked in the courses should interest Americans especially. That is the frequency with which one hears most favorable and flattering allusions to Americans and American scholarship. One meets such utterances most frequently and unexpectedly, and there can be no doubt as to the sincerity of the sentiment, for it is expressed on occasions when no Americans are present, or when the speaker is entirely ignorant of their presence. There is not the least doubt that those of the French who really know us have a genuine love and sympathy for us, and they take pleasure in manifesting such feelings. Certainly the war has contributed and is contributing still to strengthen the intellectual bonds uniting the two sister republics—as the French love to say. The welcome accorded to Professor Grandgent, Harvard exchange professor this year, was testimony to the fact. He was most cordially received, and his lectures, which have just come to an end, were followed by an attentive and sympathetic audience.

From the above it can be readily seen, I trust, that no American student need feel any hesitation about the conditions for work here. If he comes, he will find a cordial welcome and all the facilities of ordinary times at his disposal. There are no military regulations to frighten him and make life a nightmare; in fact, if he be so inclined, he can lead the most normal student's life possible anywhere.

JOHN HILL.

Paris, January 25.

SIR WILLIAM WHITE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The reviewer of Sir Edwin Pears's "Forty Years in Constantinople" speaks at some length of Sir William White, British Ambassador at the Porte in the 'eighties of the last century, and says: "If his life is ever written, it ought to be full of interest." Permit me to remind him that it has been written by H. Sutherland Edwards: "Life and Correspondence of Sir William White, K.C.B." (London, 1902). The Ambassador's career was indeed "full of interest," for he was very influential in persuading Lord Salisbury to reverse the Turcophil policy of Lord Beaconsfield in 1885, when the Bulgarians carried through the union of Eastern Rumelia with the principality of Bulgaria. If the Bulgarians of to-day remembered what they owed to the great Ambassador, perhaps they would not now be ranged with the enemies of England.

BERNADOTTE E. SCHMITT.

Cleveland, O., March 4.

Literature

PROFESSOR LADD'S PHILOSOPHY.

What Can I Know? What Ought I to Do? What Should I Believe? What May I Hope? By George Trumbull Ladd. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. Four volumes; $1.50 net each.

Professor Ladd is not only the author of the famous Physiological Psychology and of various other "Psychologies" tapering down through the many grades of simplicity to a "Primer"; he has also written many technical and elaborate works on philosophy, including "A Theory of Knowledge," "A Theory of Reality," a "Philosophy of Conduct," and a "Philosophy of Religion." The philosophical point of view presented in these rather forbidding technical works he has now recast into relatively simple language for the benefit of the lay reader, and presented it in the four volumes under review. The titles of the four volumes are suggestive and indicate the nature of the work. The philosophical questions discussed are taken up from the point of view of the individual, who, with little or no previous knowledge of philosophy, turns to the philosopher for light on the problems of life that confront every thoughtful man. Professor Ladd's style is clear, simple, and flowing, and his exposition presupposes nothing on the part of the reader but interest. Sometimes, indeed, it presupposes more interest than the average reader will bring to the task; not indeed because of any difficulty in the exposition, but because the thought expressed becomes at times so very thin. The style, it has been said, is "flowing," and in many a passage it flows on in a stream covering a dozen pages or more with scarcely an idea on its bosom. There are several chapters in each of the four volumes which should be quietly skipped, if the reader wishes to keep awake. But there are other chapters which he will do well to read. And in spite of the verbosity of the style, it must be said that in many ways Professor Ladd's treatment is fresh and unconventional, and that the division of the subjects treated gives a much saner view of the real relations of our knowledge, belief, and hope than is to be found in most philosophical treatises.

Professor Ladd's view that there is no absolute line between knowledge and belief is one of the principal theses of the first volume. And this is maintained not merely to give the reader a better notion of the nature of knowledge, but for a deeper, and a dearer, reason, which comes out in the sequel. Professor Ladd has ever the theological goal in his eye, and the nature and conditions of knowledge are laid out in such a way as to lead up eventually to a positive answer to the question, Can a man know God? There is no absolute knowledge of reality, for even the laws of logic give us nothing that is at once unquestionable and objective. "Logical thinking can never render knowledge infallible; much thinking can never render knowledge complete. All knowledge-judgments that are arrived at by thought are only approximately accurate and are endowed with only a greater or less, but never with a perfect, 'objective certainty.'" Yet this does not mean agnosticism, for "every man may attain knowledge and growth in knowledge corresponding in some good degree to the range and accuracy of his thinking." There are degrees in knowledge, varying with the degree to which the subject or fact in question harmonizes with the totality of one's experience. And this experience which tests each piece of knowledge is the experience of the whole man, including not only the truths of logic and the facts of science, but the value judgments of morality and religion by which he lives.

The various kinds of knowledge—scientific, moral, religious, etc.—though different, are not really inconsistent. Properly understood, they all point in the same direction. Science seeks to treat the material world as if it were impersonal; but it can never succeed in this, but inevitably must analyze it into centres of energy—which, properly understood, are really centres of will. The process of science is ultimately "one of personifying; the conclusion is that the world of things can be known at all, if known as it really is, only after the analogy of the personality of the knower. . . . In a word, all knowledge is for human minds a commerce of minds—of the mind of man with the mind that is centred in or revealed through the things. And commerce implies community, or kinship, not only of interests, but also of natures." Thus easily is dualism refuted! And pluralism is even more easily disposed of. For pluralism, it appears, makes appeal "to certain emotions" rather than to clear thinking and science and reason (a thing Professor Ladd would never think of doing!); and, moreover, a *pluralistic universe* is "a contradiction in the very terms." Science, truly understood, therefore points to the one Will behind the many wills; and in this it is reinforced by the æsthetic, moral, and religious emotions of the individual and of the race. "In this way there is discovered to the knower who himself *wills* to think things through far enough, the principle of one rational mind pervading and manifesting itself in the system which the world is."

It may be doubted whether Professor Ladd's answer to the question, "What can I know?" is justified; it cannot be denied that it is fairly definite. Unfortunately, the same cannot be said of his answer to the second question, "What Ought I to Do?" We find, indeed, an admirable psychological description of the development of the moral consciousness in the child, together with much good advice as to the treatment of conscience, and a long disquisition on the meaning of "good" and on the many virtues and the impossibility of uniting them all into one virtue. We also learn that the *ought* comes from the whole self, and that it has to do with the mutual relations of selves, and we even have a definition of a duty—namely, "a piece of conduct, or an habitual way of behaving, towards some person as his *due*." But how we shall determine what a person's dues are (further than the rather unenlightening admonition that he should be treated *as* a person), or what principle lies at the bottom of the many virtues, or what is the real difference between right and wrong—these fundamental issues are exactly the ones which Professor Ladd skilfully and consistently dodges; and "the fine discovery which we have made, the treasure-trove we have unearthed" in the course of three hundred-odd pages is expressed at last in the following fashion: Our main question is *What ought I to Do?* "And we seem to have discovered that the life which proposes to live in loyalty to the answer to this question—that is, *the truly moral life*—is itself something well worth while" (!) In other words, I ought to do—what I ought to do.

It is in the third volume of the series, entitled "What Should I Believe?" that the unfortunate verbosity, to which reference has been made, is perhaps most in evidence. "That the various beliefs and faiths of men differ greatly in their weight and value is amply proved" in the course of nine pages, and illustrated in fifteen more. Two chapters are devoted to the rights, obligations, comforts, and rewards of belief, in which the obvious is elaborated to the verge of somnolence. Yet there are some excellent things in the volume. Among these are some very wise words on the will to believe, ending with the sentence: "The will-to-believe what is true is the only rational and safe kind of the will-to-believe."

All our beliefs should be reasonable; but it is reasonable—and necessary—to believe very much more than we can prove. The most fundamental of our beliefs, according to Professor Ladd, is the belief in our own souls, and next to that the belief in our ability to know reality. This belief is really fundamental to all science—which thus turns out to be a matter of faith almost as much as is religion. And here again science and religion join hands, for both must have faith in the unity and reason of all things. To the reasoning belief which science contributes, religion adds an emotional belief. And thus we arrive at a truly reasonable religious view which indeed does not pretend to be knowledge, but does pretend to be rational in the fullest meaning of that word, since it is based on the nature and experience of the whole man.

As there is no sharp and fast line between knowing and believing, so there is a continuous passage between believing and hoping. For all real hopes are intimately related to beliefs, and what we do not in some measure believe we cannot really hope for. This explained (and very fully explained—in the course of several chapters), Professor Ladd brings us some very interesting questions dealing with our scientific, social, moral, and religious hopes. His

pages on the limitations of scientific hopes should be read by every laboratory dogmatist. "The genuine spirit of science will not regard its own hypotheses, or even its own most firmly established so-called laws, as having the right to set fixed limits to its hopes. In the name of the freedom of science, and in the interests of its right always with hope to extend its own limitations, we must protest its ever making itself the slave of its own laws." But it is in social questions that it is of the greatest importance for us to understand the true limits of our hopes, and on the one hand not to be bound by a rigid fatalism, or, on the other, to be deluded by expecting the impossible. Finally, the hope of personal immortality is examined with some care. On the purely psychological question of the absolute dependence of the soul upon the body, "the result of more than forty years of study of the subject enables the author to say that, in his judgment, the case as it stands at present is a 'drawn battle,' with the accumulating evidence from the purely scientific points of view turning against rather than in favor of" absolute dependence. And his conclusion is that "the body is the temporary vehicle of the soul in the earlier stages of its journey, rather than its only and perishable but inescapable prison-house or home." But in the last analysis, the hope of human immortality, like most other hopes, is based on the "faith in an ever-living, perfectly righteous, and all-merciful God."

There is no room within the limits even of this long review to enter into detailed criticism of Professor Ladd's positions. Into many of them, indeed, the reviewer cannot follow him; but that is no reason why he should seek to dissuade the reader from doing so. To many these four volumes will be persuasive; to still more they will be comforting.

CURRENT FICTION.

Mrs. Balfame. By Gertrude Atherton. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.

Mrs. Atherton has written no novel of sustained power. Even at her best—in "Tower of Ivory" and "Perch of the Devil," for example—crudities of plot and structure have been unhappily obvious. But we have found there elements of strength and sincerity, and not a little skill in the portrayal of certain types of character. "Mrs. Balfame" is purely a potboiler. As a murder and mystery story, concocted for a special market, it has its merits. That market sets little value upon literary quality. It cares next to nothing for character study, and nothing at all for the interpretation of life. What it requires is (1) the horror of an act of crime; (2) the long-drawn thrill of uncertainty as to its author; and (3) the sudden and unexpected resolution of that doubt. The recipe is filled with precision by Mrs. Atherton in this narrative. If the reader guesses before the end who has really murdered Balfame, it must be by lucky selection from a group of counter-guesses. The first false clue is furnished by the opening sentence: "Mrs. Balfame had made up her mind to commit murder." The grounds for her decision, and for that of the real murderer, are characteristic and original. They think it absurd that an undesirable American husband should not be privately killed when so many thousands of desirable citizens and subjects are being publicly murdered for no cause on the battlefields of Europe. Mr. Wells or Mr. Chesterton might have made excellent play with such a theme. Mrs. Atherton does nothing with it, for the reason that Mrs. Balfame herself is a ridiculous dummy, with whom it is impossible to trump up the least sympathy. The human figures here are as crudely drawn as those of any Anna Katharine Green. That, as we have said, is of little moment to the mystery story pure and simple. It is worth mention only because Mrs. Atherton and her publishers appear to be laboring under the impression that this is a work of literary art, with uncommon merits of style and characterization.

The Iron Stair: A Romance of Dartmoor. By "Rita." New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

This is a story about two brothers who look almost alike. One of them is a wicked clergyman and the other is a virtuous pleasure-seeker. They both love the same girl, who is their cousin. A check of her father's is altered, and the crime is brought home by law to the good brother. It has been planned by the bad one to get the good one out of the way. Now, a Younger Son, the Honorable Aubrey FitzJohn, who is bored with life, becomes interested in the case, partly through the agency of his valet, who happens to be a reformed burglar. The bored one is present at the end of the trial, and does not believe the good brother is guilty. However, his interest for some time appears to be more emotional than practical. The guiltless one goes to prison and languishes there. Meantime, the Honorable Aubrey by chance makes the acquaintance of the girl in the case. Any little unconventionality involved in this, on her part, is explained by the fact that her mother was French. Renée and the Honorable Aubrey at once fall in love; but Renée, who is (when she remembers to be) full of grief for her good cousin, has agreed to marry the bad one, for whom she does not care. The Honorable Aubrey lets her. The bad cousin takes her to his curacy in a remote hamlet of Dartmoor, which is yet not far from Princetown and its great prison. The good cousin is transferred to that prison, and the upshot of the business is an escape planned by Renée and the Honorable Aubrey, and involving the passing off of the escaped convict for the dead curate, and vice-versa. Anguish ensues, but it all "comes out right in the end," which is the chief thing one asks of a romance. Improbable and strained as the action is at times, the story is much more skilfully written than the usual tale of its kind.

The Bloom of Youth. By Dorothy Foster Gilman. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

The Frog Pond, the Public Gardens, Beacon and Newbury Streets, Papanti's dancing-class, Harvard Square, feminism, socialism, Boston's best families—here is the substance of a first story by a recent graduate of Radcliffe. Leslie Wyman, pretty and independent daughter of a conventional mother, insists upon entering Radcliffe instead of the marriage market. There, as a protest against the things that are, she will have nothing to do with girls of her own social class, and takes as her chief intimates a negress and an Italian girl from the North End. Two youths of Harvard are upon her horizon. They are both also of Boston's best families, but Henry Evans is a professed Socialist and feminist and a real sneak and parasite, while Herbert Kane, an avowed aristocrat, is, as it were, one of nature's commoners. In due course, Leslie finds out about Henry, towards whom she has for some time taken the attitude of a disciple. But she clings to her theories about property, trial marriages, and so forth, until, by a master stroke of fate, her eyes are opened to the truth. That is, Herbert goes down into a sewer after a half-asphyxiated laborer, while Henry stands by. Aristocracy is vindicated, and the shock of Herbert's peril (for Leslie also happens to be there) reveals to the girl, etc. The narrative is crude and thin, and there is no evidence that it is the work of a spontaneous story-teller.

KITCHENER'S ARMY.

The First Hundred Thousand. By Ian Hay. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $1.50 net.

At the beginning of the war the author of "The Lighter Side of School Life" and other delightful volumes received a commission in one of the new battalions of the Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders. The training of this battalion, which for purposes of the story is called the Seventh (Service) Battalion of the Bruce and Wallace Highlanders, and its experiences at the front, where it was badly cut up in the British offensive of last September, were described in a series of papers contributed to *Blackwood's Magazine*, signed by "the Junior Sub.," and these are now republished in book form under the usual signature of the author, whose proper style and title is now Capt. Ian Hay Beith.

"K(1)," which is the technical designation of the first hundred thousand of Kitchener's new troops, is fortunate in having found for the chronicler of its common joys and sorrows so gifted an essayist as Capt. Beith. With light touch and imaginative insight he tells the story of his battalion in such wise that these desultory papers, written hurriedly and in odd moments, acquire

a unity of their own, which needs no elaborate analysis to discover: it is the tale of the transformation of an "awkward, shy, self-conscious mob" of dour Scots, most of them miners, into a coördinated, disciplined regiment of professional soldiers. In this Capt. Beith only confirms what was noted months ago by the military expert of the *Westminster Gazette*, that these newly raised legions of Lord Kitchener's are no mere loosely knit congeries of amateurs, but have acquired in the best sense the spirit and demeanor of the professional soldier. And this applies to the amiable failings of Mr. Thomas Atkins as well as to his more sterling qualities. For instance, the ineradicable aversion of Thomas Atkins to fatigue duties has communicated itself to his younger brother. To any call of strictly military duties, however arduous, he is quick to respond, but let him get a notion that what is required of him is in the nature of a "fatigue," and he will shirk if he can. Here is Capt. Beith's summary of the new type, which shows how it approximates to the old:

> He is quick to discover himself aggrieved, but is readily appeased if he feels that his officer is really doing his best for him, and that both of them are the victims of a higher power. On the other hand, he is often amazingly cheerful under uncomfortable and depressing surroundings. He is growing quite fastidious, too, about his personal appearance when off duty. (You should see our quiffs on Saturdays!) He is quite incapable of keeping possession of his clothing, his boots, his rifle, his health, or anything that is his, without constant supervision and nurse-maiding. And that he is developing a strong bent towards the sentimental is evinced by the choruses that he sings in the gloaming and his taste in picture post-cards.

He even passes the supreme test:

> He no longer gets drunk from habit. When he does so now it is because there were no potatoes at dinner, or because there has been a leak in the roof of his hut for a week and no one is attending to it, or because his wife is not receiving her separation allowance. Being an inarticulate person, he finds getting drunk the simplest and most effective expedient for acquainting the powers that be with the fact that he has a grievance. Formerly, the morning list of "drunks" merely reflected the nearness or remoteness of pay-day. Now it is a most reliable and invaluable barometer of the regimental atmosphere.

To the making of this entity before it is worthy to take its place at the front and uphold in the battle-line the traditions of one of the most famous regiments of the British army go many diverse elements and much shuffling of places. The shirkers and confirmed drunkards are weeded out early in the game; Private McSlattery, trade-unionist and "weel kent in Clydebank" as a hard and independent citizen, must learn that to salute an officer is not necessarily derogatory to self-respect; the efficient ex-boy scout rises rapidly in the non-commissioned ranks, and Private Dunshie, after various unfortunate experiments in labor-saving devices, at length achieves dignity and comparative leisure as the regimental chiropodist.

We emphasize the unity which binds these sketches together at the expense of the episodes which in every chapter provide capital reading. The book is eminently quotable; has, indeed, been quoted freely in the press during its appearance in *Blackwood's Magazine*, and the constant humor is leavened with frequent touches of pathos. The first part of the volume, dealing with the seven weary months of the training of "K(1)" in England, is on the whole the more interesting, because this humdrum aspect of the life of the new troops has been less dwelt upon than their more spectacular adventures at the front; but the second part is equally well done, and certainly not less entertaining in style. We welcome it as fulfilling the conditional promise with which the first part closes, dependent as that was on "the course of history, and the present historian's eye for cover," and hope that the second promise, made at the end of the volume, after the description of the regiment's glorious share in the offensive of last September, may as auspiciously be fulfilled, and that we may hear some time how "Major Kemp, Capt. Wagstaffe, Ayling, and Bobby Little, assisted by such veterans as Corporal Mucklewame, built up the regiment, with copious draughts and a fresh batch of subalterns, to its former strength."

A SPENSERIAN CONCORDANCE.

A Concordance to the Poems of Edmund Spenser. Compiled and Edited by Charles Grosvenor Osgood. Published by the Carnegie Institution of Washington.

The concordance-maker is doubtless frequently assured that his patience is his only monument. But he rests quite content to be thus patronized by his "literary" brethren—and used. He knows, indeed, that, besides infinite patience, wide knowledge and delicate discrimination have gone to the work. This is especially true of the new "Spenser Concordance," a giant of its kind. Here the material is peculiarly intractable, owing to the spelling, whimsical beyond ordinary Elizabethan lengths, to produce which Spenser had, no doubt, an active conspirator in his printer. The difficulties are ingeniously met. The head-word is regularly indexed under the modern English spelling, with the quotations, below, chronologically, and in the spelling of the early editions. For this purpose the texts of Morris and of Dodge have been carefully collated, and the readings of Sélincourt's Oxford edition, where they vary because of its use of the 1596 edition of "Faerie Queene," I-III, are also recorded. In cases where Spenser's spelling is wide of modern practice it is entered as a head-word with a cross-reference, so that the most *literal*-minded can hardly go astray.

Certain ways of concordance-makers will always seem a little strange to ordinary mortals. The habit of putting in one list all words written alike results in some strange bedfellows: *bear* (noun and verb), *back* (in all its senses); *avail*, meaning to lower and to suffice; whereas inflected forms, like *bearing* or *bear's*, are often at several removes from their base. But this is necessitated by a strictly alphabetical arrangement, the primary object of which is to permit the running down of a given passage with the least effort. To distinguish subtly between meanings would end in all kinds of difficulties. As it is, it seems inconsistent that *ay* and *aye* should be lumped in one list, and *begonne* and *sprong* kept separate from *begun* and *sprung*, of which they are nothing but variant spellings. There should be an entry, *mone*, the only spelling Spenser knows, with a cross-reference to *moan*. As in all concordances, of certain common words like *is* and *but* only partial, though representative, lists are given. It is disappointing to find *yes* and *yea* treated in this way; for the older poets, where a distinction of some importance may have been intended, these words should be fully recorded.

But it must not be thought that these decisions in the matter of arrangement (and, be it remembered, an editor *must* decide) greatly, if at all, interfere with the primary purpose of the book, its usefulness. It is made with great care and has functioned accurately wherever tested. The only error noted is *wisht* for *wist*, on page 968 (third entry under *wist*).

Such a book has many uses besides the obvious one of an index of words, an aid to finding a desired passage. It is an index of what the poet had to say, of his ideas. It should be of inestimable use in the study, which ought now to be undertaken, of Spenser's vocabulary, his "no language," as Jonson called it, and its sources in dialectical or literary inheritance. It will be conned no less by the student who wishes to find out what Milton meant when he placed Spenser, "sage and serious," above Scotus or Aquinas.

We take this volume as an earnest that the Carnegie Institution is going to do its full duty in the field of English literature. In this instance no pains have been spared. An admirable reproduction of the reputed portrait of Spenser in the possession of the Rt. Hon. Lewis Harcourt forms the frontispiece.

THE GENIUS OF THE COMMON LAW.

Law and Its Administration. By Harlan F. Stone, LL.D., Dean of the School of Law, Columbia University. Columbia University Press. $1.50 net.

Our legal system has been the subject of much unfair criticism and of not a little unmeasured eulogy. On the one hand, it has been held up as "a crazy outfit"; on the other, as "the perfection of human reason." To one class of writers it is meet only for destruction. To the other, it is sacrosanct, and all disparagement is impious.

The author of the lectures before us does not belong to either of these classes. He finds in our legal institutions "the accumu-

lated wisdom and experience of our whole civilization," and has an abiding faith in their beneficence. In them, he declares, "lies the assurance of our lives, liberty, property, and happiness." However, he does not worship the common law as a body of doctrine which is beyond criticism; nor does he pretend that its administration has been free from reproach. Not only is it susceptible of improvement, but it is constantly progressing and expanding to meet the changing needs of society. True, its rate of advancement is not rapid. "The common law, if it would preserve its character as law, can only follow with cautious and somewhat tardy steps the sentiment of the community in order that it may not mistake the false and the temporary for the real and the permanent."

Dean Stone frankly confesses to an "uncomfortable conviction" that justice is not the invariable outcome of a legal trial under present conditions. But occasional miscarriages of justice do not justify the bitter condemnation often passed upon our system of law. They ought indeed to lead us "to inquire into the causes of failure, and to seek the remedy for defects" in our legal machinery. Such inquiry and search are made in the lecture on Law Reform. It is a lecture worthy of careful study. It shows clearly that a true reformation even of our procedural defects is not to be effected by legislative waving of a magician's wand, but by the slow process of "stimulating in the public mind the love of justice, of educating it as to the nature of law and the grave importance of delegating its administration only to those who are fit to bear that responsibility."

While Dean Stone is not an unquestioning eulogist of our judicial system, he is ready to defend it against unfair attacks. Courts may have been too conservative at times, but as a rule they have always been responsive to progress in the ethical standards of the people whom they serve. He rejects the charge that "our judges are not competent to administer justice, because they are not sufficiently familiar with life." He declares that they have a better opportunity to know the life of a community than most of their critics, and a larger fund of experience from which to draw. He adds: "When a judge declares law, he is controlled not by his untested beliefs, or enthusiasms about racial conditions, but by stubborn facts proven in court, and is sobered by the ever-present realization that by his judgment he is determining the rights of individuals whose case is being litigated before him. It is this which more than any other factor gives to the common law its toughness of fibre, its capacity to resist abrasion of social and legal theories which do not rest upon the solid foundation of established fact and human experience."

Marked success as a legal practitioner and as a teacher of law does not necessarily fit one to expound the principles of the common law to a lay audience. Dean Stone's lectures, however, show that it has not disqualified him for such a task. On the other hand, the qualities of clear thinking, of thorough knowledge, and of lucid expression, which have won him eminence as a lawyer and teacher, enabled him to hold the attention of his Cooper Union audiences, and make his exposition of the fundamental notions underlying our legal system simple, readable, and instructive. In no other publication can the layman find a more interesting or satisfactory interpretation of the genius of the common law.

Notes

"Fulfilment," by Emma Wolf, is announced for publication by Henry Holt & Co. on March 18.

"By Motor to the Firing Line: An Artist's Notes and Sketches with the Armies of Northern France," by Walter Hale, is announced for publication shortly by the Century Co.

Paul Elder & Co. announce for publication in April "The Great Spiritual Writers of America," by George Hamlin Fitch.

The following volumes are announced as forthcoming by Houghton Mifflin Co.: "Modernizing the Monroe Doctrine," by Charles H. Sherrill; the "Autobiography" of Charles Francis Adams; "Historic Styles in Furniture," by Virginia Robie; "The Revolution in Virginia," by H. J. Eckenrode; "Vesper Talks to Girls," by Laura A. Knott, and two volumes in the New Poetry series, Conrad Aiken's "Turns and Movies" and Walter Conrad Arensberg's "Idols."

Dodd, Mead & Co. announce the following volumes for publication on March 18: "Wreckage: A Play in Three Acts," by J. Hartley Manners; "Captain Gardiner of the International Police," by Robert Allen; "Behind the Bolted Door?" by Arthur E. McFarlane; "My Harvest," by Richard Whiteing; "Gibby of Clamshell Alley," by Jasmine Stone Van Dresser; "Wake Up America," by William R. Castle, jr.; "When Carey Came to Town," by Edith Barnard Delano.

Whatever effect the great war may have on literature as a self-conscious product, it has beyond question revealed in many unpretentious and untrained writers the ability to express themselves with vividness and sincerity. The shock of great events in which these writers have been participants has sufficed to bring out qualities of elemental simplicity and spontaneous expression which a sophisticated author might well envy. This artlessness, which has nevertheless the effect of high art, is to be found in many letters from the front, in the diaries of soldiers, etc. It appears in a marked degree in the diary-jottings of a young Princeton graduate, Mr. Edward D. Toland, who joined the French Red Cross shortly after the outbreak of the war and served in French hospitals and ambulance corps from September, 1914, to February, 1915. This diary, accompanied by many interesting photographs, has now been published under the title of "The Aftermath of Battle" (Macmillan; $1 net). In it the writer has recorded in unadorned fashion his daily experiences as hewer of wood, drawer of water, assistant at operations, or whatever else he may have happened to be for the nonce. It all has the indelible stamp of fresh experience and comes to the reader like first-hand reality. Operations and the nursing of the wounded naturally receive most attention. Repulsive details are not spared, though, to offset that, there is a plentiful sprinkling of picturesque and humorous incidents. Mr. Toland seldom generalizes or pronounces judgment. One gets the impression, however, of a certain panicky inefficiency on the part of the French at the outset, followed by an ever increasing orderliness and competence. Mr. Owen Wister has written a characteristic introduction to the book, in which he praises the services of Mr. Toland and a host of other Americans who have helped "to remove the stain which was cast over all Americans when we were invited to be neutral in our opinions while democracy in Europe was being strangled to death."

Owen Johnson's "The Spirit of France" (Little, Brown; $1.35) begins with impressions of the trenches and ends with an interview with Joffre, and a general international survey. Mr. Johnson had remarkable facilities, even to the doubtful privilege of crawling in a mining tunnel. He is, perhaps, most successful in indicating the extraordinary mixture of town, trench, and morass which the trenches are. One pictures them erroneously as mostly in open country. The picture of the humble workers clinging to their homes and pursuing their routine work between the batteries is also just and vivid. These are the new slants of vision afforded by the author, and here photographic cuts and Mr. Hale's excellent drawings ably abet his pen. For the rest, the book is not very different from its numerous class, and it would have been more gracious, and possibly more just, to eulogize the moral fortitude of France, without using England as foil.

"Women, World War and Permanent Peace" (San Francisco: J. J. Newbegin), by Mrs. May Wright Sewall, is an account of the International Conference of Women Workers held at San Francisco, July 4-17, 1915, in connection with the Panama Exposition. The inception of the idea and the work of organization are fully described. Then follows a verbatim report of the proceedings, even the invocations and hymns being reproduced in full. A characteristic address by Mr. Bryan on woman suffrage in its relation to the cause of peace occupies the culminating point in the programme. Apparently the only thing omitted is a speech by Mrs. Philip Snowden, an English delegate, which was withheld from publication at her request. This gap somewhat piques the curiosity of the reader, who is tempted to imagine something spicier than the slightly monotonous repetition of excellent sentiments which he encounters elsewhere in the book. The resolutions adopted at the conclusion of the conference recommend among other things the use of such textbooks in the schools as will diminish jingoism and induce loyalty to an international ideal. There is a short preface by Dr. David Starr Jordan.

Mrs. Hugh Fraser in her new book, "Storied Italy" (Dodd, Mead; $3.50), shows her familiar gifts of vivacity and sentiment. Personal reminiscence and historical revival, description, allusion, and comment blend in a literary product that is almost invariably beguil-

ing. Naturally the manner has occasional *longueurs*, and there is some abuse of the zigzag, but usually the author carries it off triumphantly, quite as if it were so much good talk. The recent Papal conclaves and the earthquake in the Abruzzi are the most topical subjects. Mrs. Fraser is especially happy in tracing the haps and mishaps of cosmopolitan families. Here the ghost appears as of right. The longest sketch in the volume treats of the fourteenth-century saint, Francesca Romana. The weakest and the only dull sketch to us is the attempt to "visualize" the Angevin lords of Italy. There are a few illustrations.

The muckraker and the dissatisfied reformer and the pessimistic progressive have, during these recent years, made such a din in our ears that it is a relief and a much-needed encouragement to come upon a group of books such as the Social Betterment series, which undertakes to tell us, not what we ought to do, but what has actually been done—to describe, as Prof. Shailer Mathews, the editor of the series, puts it, the "steady advance" that "has been made in correcting evils and in establishing laws, institutions, and precedents looking toward the genuine improvement of social conditions." It is fortunate that the late Professor Henderson, of Chicago University, distinguished as few American professors have been for his rare combination of scholarship, practical wisdom, and public spirit, was able to finish, just before his death, one of the volumes of this series. Its title, "Citizens in Industry" (Appleton; $1.50), gives little idea of its purpose, which is to present a "summary of the efforts that are actually being made to better the situation of the wage earners throughout the world." Most of the volume is devoted to a study of what is technically known as "welfare work"—which Professor Henderson defines as "a form of voluntary activity of employers for the betterment of conditions of employees, by methods which are not yet incorporated in legal institutions." The principles underlying welfare work are discussed with great wisdom. On the one hand, it must not be based on sentiment alone or carried to such an extent as to discourage investment; it must be justified by solid returns to the employer in the form of increased efficiency on the part of the employee. "Under what conditions," asks Dr. Henderson, "is welfare work advisable from the standpoint of pecuniary advantage to the employer, and therefore most likely to be extended?" And his answer is: "In any case where the increased efficiency and product cover, or more than cover, the cost." On the other hand, the workman must be made to understand that the measures taken for his welfare are not to be regarded by any one as a charity, but as a "business proposition." After considering in some detail the situation and its problems and the general principles of a real solution, Professor Henderson proceeds, throughout the remainder of his volume, to describe the various kinds of welfare work that have been tried, and the varying degrees of success that have been achieved, and the examples are presented with a richness of empirical detail and a care in selection of the relevant that make the book most instructive. The author has had in mind the practical application of his principles to particular cases; and not only the sociologist and social worker, but the employer, most of all, should find the volume of real assistance as an actual guide in the concrete problems of labor and capital.

An interesting book in more ways than one is Dr. William Healy's and Mary T. Healy's "Pathological Lying, Accusation and Swindling" (Little, Brown; $2.50). It is "the first of a series of Monograph Supplements to the Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology which is published in Chicago as the official organ of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology." Dr. Healy is the director of the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute of Chicago, now associated with the Juvenile Court, and through it he sees each year about 2,000 youthful delinquents. It is upon the great mass of empirical evidence thus obtained, and particularly upon twenty-seven carefully selected cases, that the book under review is chiefly based, though the authors present also an analysis of the entire literature of the subject—practically all of which comes from Germany or France. Pathological lying is defined as "falsification entirely disproportionate to any discernible end in view, engaged in by a person who, at the time of observation, cannot definitely be declared insane, feeble-minded, or epileptic." It is thus a definite pathological phenomenon, to be distinguished from insanity on the one hand, and from "normal" lying on the other, and as such deserves separate consideration and a name of its own (*pseudologia phantastica* the German Gelehrte call it). The twenty-seven cases studied occupy the bulk of the volume, being presented in great detail; and if sometimes unpleasant, at other times they make very interesting reading. Some of the lies related are genuine works of art, evincing on the part of the accomplished liar no small degree of literary and histrionic ability. And in almost every case it seems to be art for art's sake.

Each of the cases studied was subjected to medical examination and psychological tests, and so far as possible the heredity and the social and physical environment of the youthful offender, from his birth up, were investigated in detail and are carefully recorded. The results of the study as a basis for generalization are sometimes instructive, sometimes disappointing. Both the medical and the psychological tests failed to discover anything abnormal or notably unusual as an invariable or even common accompaniment of pathological lying—except, indeed, "a deep-set egocentricism." Heredity is an important influence in a great deal of pathological lying; not indeed that the tendency to lie is itself inherited, but that the liar usually comes from a stock showing defects of various sorts. The first appearance of the failing is sometimes traceable to some emotional crisis, but as a rule its rise is quite insidious; and almost invariably its origin is to be found far back in childhood. Evil social and physical influences of various sorts, of course, play their part in producing the liar; and (as was to be expected) sexual irregularities are exceedingly common in the life of the pathological liar. Sex, too (as well as sexuality), is an important element, for the proportion of female liars is strikingly high. But the most common characteristic of the cases studied—and this holds true of the German and French literature upon the subject as well as of Dr. Healy's observations—is a kind of artistic impulse for mythologizing quite similar to the impulse for literary creation in normal people. "The coercive impulse for self-expression, with an accompanying feeling of desire and dissatisfaction, plays a similar part in both." It is for this reason that our authors quote with approval the suggestion made quite seriously by one of the German authorities, that perhaps the best form of treatment for the pathological liar is to put him into the newspaper business, where his peculiar talents will have free and lawful play. In the matter of prognosis and treatment, however, it is really too early to do more than throw out suggestions, and little is said of the subject in this book.

In "Conduct and the Supernatural" (Longmans; $2.25 net), Mr. L. S. Thornton ("of the Community of the Resurrection, Mirfield; and late scholar of Emmanuel College, Cambridge") has brought us a sample of pre-Victorian theology and ethics which has an odd ring in these very untheological days. The aim of the book "is to examine the grounds which have been put forward of recent years for rejecting the Christian way of life, and to criticise the various systems which have been proposed by way of substitute"; and especially "to show that in the search for the foundations of conduct one is driven from the natural to the supernatural." The method by which this is done consists, first of all, in examining the ethical views of Nietzsche, John Davidson, Bernard Shaw, and H. G. Wells. When these have been weighed in the balance and found wanting, the conclusion is at once announced that *all* "naturalistic" ethics have been proved untenable and that all morality must therefore be based upon religion. And by "religion," Mr. Thornton of course means the religion miraculously revealed to and preserved within and taught by the One Church. "The whole attitude of men and women towards moral questions will, if the Church has been right, resolve itself into a choice between obedience to a moral law grounded upon revealed religion on the one hand, and a self-made subjective morality founded on Naturalism on the other." To be sure, Mr. H. S. Chamberlain has tried to uphold the astounding view that Christian morality may be a natural growth, not dependent on revelation; but Mr. Chamberlain is at once refuted by the proof that his views of the Fall are Pelagian and that in many other ways he is quite unorthodox. Having thus disposed of all man-made ethical systems, the author leads the way into a long and learned discussion of the true and theological basis and structure of morality—a discussion into which the reader of this note will probably not care to follow him.

Of late years it has become a fashion to hold "conferences" on higher education upon such occasions as the inauguration of a college or university head—and both perfunctory and inchoate many of these "conferences" have been. One of unusual definiteness of character was arranged last year by President William H. Crawford, of Allegheny College, for the celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of the founding of that institution; and the papers there read now appear under the title "The American College" (Holt; $1.25 net). Six of them deal with the programme of the typical college as opposed to the university, Presidents Faunce and Thwing each writing one. Three, by John H. Finley, President Few, of Trinity College, and President Slocum, of Colorado College, treat the present standing and probable future of the small college in the East, South, and West,

respectively; and two, by President Meiklejohn and Commissioner Claxton, deal with the achievements of the American college. There is much of the platitudinous in some of the addresses, and their generalized views never clash. But all are informed by a vivid faith in the small college, and the papers by Presidents Finley, Few, and Slocum present a strong groundwork of fact for this faith.

A collection of those documentary sources which are of evident value to the student of the history of education in America has been made in "State and County School Administration: Volume II, A Source Book," by Elwood P. Cubberly and Edward C. Elliott (Macmillan). Volume I of the same work, a textbook of principles, is in preparation. The 700 pages of this first division contain public papers relating to the disposal of national and State lands for school purposes, beginning with the ordinance of 1787 and ending with the Agricultural Extension act of 1914; papers relating to Federal agencies for education, as the Smithsonian Institution, the Children's Bureau, and the Bureau of Education; relating to State educational administration, and to county, town, and district school systems. There is also a selection of reports and studies concerning methods of financing the school system, and the governmental control of school buildings, texts, and supplies; concerning school sanitation, and concerning special relations between the State and delinquent or defective children. Even the relation of the church to the schools is covered, and there are documents upon such non-State agencies as the Carnegie Foundation and General Education Board. The volume, in short, contains the most authoritative data for sources upon the multitude of questions involved in educational administration, carefully arranged and edited.

Economists can gauge their loss by the death of Edward Van Dyke Robinson from the study of "Early Economic Conditions and the Development of Agriculture in Minnesota," which he prepared while still professor at the University of Minnesota, and which appears in the series of studies in the social sciences of the University. The author had proposed at first to put his work into the form of a statistical atlas, and, though he changed his plan to include a considerable text, he has provided a wealth of illustrative material in the form of maps, charts, and tables, such as no other book of the kind has ever had. The monograph is a model of critical and constructive scholarship, and as an example of sound method should have an influence extending far beyond the bounds of local interests.

To judge by the treatment, the character of the illustrations, and the appendix, Thomas Whiffen's "The Northwest Amazons" (Duffield; $3 net) is evidently intended to be taken as a scientific treatise on the tribes of this region. It is simply another book on the Amazon country written by a traveller with scientific aspirations rather than with scientific training. The descriptions of the people, their industries, and their mode of living are carefully recorded, but many of the explanations of the data are open to question. To the anthropologist the principal interest naturally centres in the Appendix, where there is a discussion of the physical characteristics. Here the reader finds with surprise that the author confesses that he did not know the correct way of taking measurements of the head, stature, etc. "I had no callipers," he writes, "and the breadth in all cases is approximate only, taken from point to point where it was individually greatest, not where, as I subsequently discovered, scientific measurement decrees." It seems inexcusable that a traveller who announces himself a Fellow of the Royal Geographical Society and of the Royal Anthropological Institute should not have availed himself of the excellent guides to scientific observation published by these two societies. Capt. Whiffen's book contains two maps, some excellent illustrations, and a useful index.

Maud Morrison Frank's "Great Authors in Their Youth" (Holt; $1.25) is a book of narrative simply and well done. Scott, Stevenson, Thackeray, Dickens, the Brownings, Tennyson—eleven of these great and kindly lights altogether. Think of the Fleet Street of Thackeray. To the mind empty of its history not much of a street; the Cock Tavern was not imposing, Temple Bar was a positively stingy little pile, but the Temple was a full volume, a queer labyrinth builded of immortal stuff, with Oliver Goldsmith lying under a casual stone. From the gardens there, well hidden, not vast nor grand, Pendennis recovering from his fever due to Fanny Bolton, the black-eyed, the illiterate, could not look out upon Cleopatra's Needle, but he could look down upon the Lord Mayor's show. Does the reader remember how either the Artful Dodger or Charley Bates ran through twists and turns of streets until the distance seemed as far as to Egypt, though really it must have been less than two miles? Here are the men who trod those ways; and moreover Scott knew the splendors, and the matters that were not splendors, of heaven-kissing Edinburgh. How his rusty old lawyers did sparkle and tipple! It is good to have this book. There is no end to the memories that it awakens.

An American bibliographer of note, Mr. George Watson Cole, has recently printed in the Papers of the Bibliographical Society of America (Volume IX) an essay on the subject of "Book-Collectors as Benefactors of Public Libraries," in which he sets forth with charm and insight the benefits conferred on his own and future generations by the collector of books. Nor does Mr. Cole use the term "book-collector" in a narrow sense; the bibliophile, the dilettante, and the scholar are all included. But for the book-collector the resources of the world's great libraries would be infinitely less than they now are. Although books are often gathered with little thought beyond the immediate joys of the chase, Providence has usually been kind in shaping a course towards some public institution, where the treasures will be of service to those who care to make use of them. The Grenville collection in the British Museum represents the garnerings of forty years of an accomplished scholar and bibliographer, and the expenditure of many thousands of pounds. Yet England's great storehouse became its final resting-place, in 1847; and Sir Anthony Panizzi, the librarian, was able to say with truth that, "with the exception of the Collection of His Majesty George the Third, the Library of the British Museum has never received an accession so important in every respect as the Collection of the Right Honorable Thomas Grenville." In this country we recall with satisfaction that the collections of Mr. Lenox, Mr. Brown, and Mr. Ayer, to name only a few, have gone to libraries which are in all essentials public, there to become lasting monuments to the donors and benefactions for all time. As Mr. Cole points out, women, with few exceptions, have been the enemies of books when gathered in large numbers; and it is unpleasant to remember such acts as that committed by Lady Balcarres when she wantonly destroyed, or permitted to be destroyed, during the absence of her son in the West Indies, a noble collection brought together by many generations of Lindsays. As an offset to this horrid picture (and not to be too hard on our wives and mothers), we may recall with distinct satisfaction the enthusiastic and discriminating bibliophile, Miss Frances Richardson Currer, who collected a remarkable library in the first half of the last century. Our dry old friend, Dibdin, dedicated his "Bibliographical Tour" to her, and was able to say that she was "at the head of all female collectors in Europe." One hundred copies of Mr. Cole's paper were reprinted for private distribution. Seven excellent portraits of well-known bibliophiles, including James Lenox, A. H. Huth, and E. D. Church, add not a little to the attractiveness of the study.

Largely through the constructive ability of Dr. Herbert Putnam, the Library of Congress has developed into an institution of which we are justly proud, or ought to be. Twenty years ago it was, of course, rich in materials, but they had not been rendered sufficiently fluid to make them useful in a very large sense. The Library's activities are no longer circumscribed; they are nation-wide. The "Report of the Librarian of Congress" (Government Printing Office) for the year ending June 30, 1915, is a record of real if not wholly satisfying achievement. The business details of the "Report" will not find a place in this note. During the year the Library received Henry Harrisse's bequest of a complete set of his own writings, annotated, with maps, manuscripts, and miscellaneous books on related subjects. This is a small but choice collection. Two hundred and three of the volumes and pamphlets are from the pen of Harrisse himself. He was, as every historical scholar knows, a slashing controversialist, and will long be remembered for his able and vigorous writings on the discovery of America and kindred topics. This is probably the only complete set of his works in existence, and, fortunately, it is greatly enriched by the author's autograph notes. Of printed books, there are in the Harrisse collection two of excessive rarity: "Bibliotheca Barlowiana" (New York, 1864), descriptive of the rare Americana in the library of S. L. M. Barlow, one of only four copies printed; and the "Letters of Christopher Columbus Describing His First Voyage to the Western Hemisphere" (New York, 1865), one of ten copies. Among the miscellaneous items are an autograph letter of Peter Martyr d'Anghiera, and a copy of Antonio de Remesal's "Historia General de las Indias Occidentales" (Madrid, 1620). The Harrisse maps are also said to be notable.

No very large gifts of books were received during the year, the largest being 314 volumes from Mrs. Ridgely Hunt, chiefly Italian works. The increase by purchase in the sec-

tions of English drama and rare first editions was satisfactory, and the manuscript collections were largely augmented by gift and otherwise. In the maps division, particularly, the Great War has made itself felt, for it has curtailed, in a marked degree, the acquisition of rare material, procurable for the most part in Europe. The death of Mr. Arthur J. Parsons, chief of the Division of Prints, was a distinct loss. "Himself a connoisseur," says Dr. Putnam, "he could speak to connoisseurs in their own language. Associated with societies and institutions engaged in the promotion of the arts, he could mediate with authority between their service and ours. He established methods by which our duplicate prints were made available for exhibit and study at a distance. Applying to the collection itself those nice discriminations of taste and of feeling which are the due of art, he not merely brought to the surface what was worthy in it, but invested this with an *atmosphere*."

"To Your Dog and to My Dog" (Houghton Mifflin; $1 net) is a pleasing little anthology compiled by Mr. Lincoln N. Kinnicutt, who has a great fondness for dogs. They have been his constant companions for fifty years, and he has studied them sympathetically. There are only thirty-two poems in the volume, but it would be difficult to select an equal number more appealing. To be sure, many of the old favorites are missing, as was to be expected in so limited a compilation. Sir Walter Scott, Matthew Arnold, Kipling, and Gilder are represented. The book should prove attractive to all lovers of dogs, whether the canine pedigree be long or short. Mr. Kinnicutt's introduction is in the form of a letter to the "dear dogs." The blank pages between the poems will afford an opportunity to write down other poems, or to insert cuttings from newspapers and magazines. A photograph of *your* dog, if you are so fortunate as to possess one, can be pasted in the panel provided for that purpose on the front cover.

Charles C. Nott, father of Judge Charles C. Nott, of the Court of General Sessions, died in New York on March 6. Mr. Nott was appointed to the United States Board of Claims by Abraham Lincoln, and became Chief Justice of the Board during President Cleveland's second administration. He retired in 1905, after forty years of service. Mr. Nott was born on September 16, 1827, and attended Union College. After his graduation he came to New York city and entered the law firm of Clarkson, Nott & Potter. Williams College conferred on him the degree of LL.D. in 1874. During the Civil War he enlisted as a private in the Fifth Iowa Cavalry, and was wounded in battle in Tennessee. Subsequently he served as colonel of the 176th New York Volunteer Regiment. Captured as a prisoner of war in Brashear, La., in June, 1863, Col. Nott lay thirteen months in a Texas prison camp and was finally discharged because of ill health. Mr. Nott was the author of "Mechanics' Lien Laws," "Sketches of the War," "Sketches of Prison Camps," "The Seven Great Hymns of the Mediæval Church," and "The Mystery of the Pinckney Draught, New York." He was a valued contributor to the early numbers of this journal, and in the semi-centennial issue of the *Nation*, in July, last year, renewed an old connection with an article of reminiscences.

Science

EXPERIMENTS IN HEREDITY.

The Mechanism of Mendelian Heredity. By T. H. Morgan, A. H. Sturtevant, H. J. Muller, and C. B. Bridges, of the Department of Zoölogy, Columbia University. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $4 net.

As recent advances in experimental biology show that Mendel's theory of heredity, which was announced just fifty years ago, has completely revolutionized our conception of inheritance, scholars will ever regret that its author, the modest and ingenious priest, could not have died in a knowledge of his just fame.

Mendel's great principles were established by careful experiments in crossing peas, which were grown in the quiet of his cloister-garden at Brünn, in Austria, but his brilliant work had the misfortune to be submerged in the transactions of an obscure scientific society, and was practically unknown until rediscovered in 1900. Since that time his experimental results have been subjected to the most rigid tests, and have not been found wanting. It is now confidently predicted that Mendel's law will be found to apply to most other plants, and to animals as well as to man.

Mendel's work proved that hereditary characters behaved as independent units, which might be dominant in any individual, but which were invariably sifted out and segregated when that individual was crossed with any other, and the hybrid children of the pair were permitted to inbreed. The sifting of such characters took place among the grandchildren in a definite ratio, expressed as 1 : 2 : 1, one representing the pure dominant character of one grand-parent, one the pure recessive character of the other, while two resembled the hybrid parents. These two hybrid grandchildren tend to split up in all subsequent filial generations, and in the same ratio, which may be expressed as 3 : 1, that is, three-fourths of the children in a given generation always show the dominant character.

The well-printed and handsomely illustrated volume under review is intended primarily for the student of genetics, and the various chapter-headings—such as Mendelian Segregation and the Chromosomes, Types of Mendelian Heredity, Linkage, Sex Inheritance, The Chromosomes as Bearers of Heredity-Material, Multiple Allelomorphs, and the like—appeal mainly to the specialist in Mendelian heredity.

Previous to the brilliant researches of Professor Morgan and his students, who bred the fruit-fly (*Drosophila ampelophila*) by the thousand in milk bottles, at Columbia University, for more than five years, only a small amount of experimental evidence had been published which supported the belief that the chromosomes of the reproductive cells were the bearers of the Mendelian factors.

The authors state Mendel's Law in the following terms: "The units contributed by two parents separate in the germ cells of the offspring, without having any influence on each other." It is an established fact that the sperm, or male reproductive element of plants and animals, contains a definite number of chromosomes, and that the egg of the same species carries the same number. Accordingly, when a sperm unites with an egg in fertilization, the fertilized product, or zygote, will contain a double number of chromosomes, which promptly arrange themselves in pairs; the process of development then begins, and with the division of the egg into two parts every chromosome also divides, so that each daughter-cell retains a double set of chromosomes. The same process, moreover, continues in all subsequent cell-divisions, so that every body-cell of any adult plant or animal contains a double number of chromosomes, that is, double that of either ovum or sperm. The germ-cells, at an early stage, also possess chromosomes in double sets; but in the course of their growth, prior to their complete differentiation, these chromosomes unite in pairs, and a different kind of division takes place; no splitting occurs, but each chromosomal pair separates in such a manner that every mature egg and sperm possesses one-half the double number. In regard to this condition, the authors state that the behavior of the chromosomes parallels that of the Mendelian units, for in the germ-cells each unit, derived from the father, separates from the corresponding unit, derived from the mother. These units which represent structural parts that are believed to segregate in the germ-cells, and control development, are called "factors," and the two factors of any pair are described as allelomorphs" of each other, each representing one of a pair of mutually exclusive qualities while their separation in the germ-cells is technically known as "segregation."

It was early found that all the factors carried by the same chromosome had a tendency to remain together, and that the number of inheritable characters for each individual would be large in comparison with the number of chromosomal pairs. Therefore it was assumed that we should expect to find not only independent behavior among these pairs, but also that hereditary characters were linked together in groups. The discovery of this character-linkage was made in 1906 by Bateson and Punnett in experiments upon the sweet pea. Only a few cases of coupling had been mentioned previous to 1910, when Professor Morgan noticed that in his cultures of the fruit-fly a large number of characters appeared by mutation; since these animals reproduce with great rapidity, he was able in a short time to investigate over a hundred characters, which were found to be inherited in four groups. It was further discovered that the germ-cells of this fly possessed four pairs of chromosomes, which bore a relation to the factor-groups; thus between these groups and the chromosomes themselves there appeared to

be a correspondence in both numbers and size.

When a mutant fly-stock with vestigial wings was mated with a wild fly with long wings, long wings were dominant over the vestigial character, which in the second generation gave the Mendelian ratio of 3 : 1. Again, when an "eyeless" mutant was mated to a normal fly, the progeny showed the normal eye dominant to the eyeless state, and since this character pertained to the fourth group, it was assumed to belong also to the fourth pair of chromosomes. These illustrations serve to show how the authors were able to determine the possible factors of each chromosome.

The inheritance of sex was found to depend upon the following conditions: the female possesses in each of her germ-cells two chromosomes of one sort, designated as "X," or XX-chromosomes; but after fertilization, when these bodies are segregated, only one X-chromosome is left in each egg. The germ-cells of the male, on the other hand, are of two kinds, one possessing a single X-chromosome and the other a chromosome of a different order, designated as "Y." Accordingly, considering only the chromosomes of the nuclei, if an egg (X) is fertilized by the sperm (Y), the resulting individual will be a male (XY), but if the egg (X) is fertilized by the sperm (X), an individual (XX) of the female sex will be produced. The Y-chromosome is accordingly present only in the male, but X-chromosomes may be passed not only from one female to another, but also from male to female and from female to male.

It was also discovered that certain factors, called "sex-linked" characters, follow the X-chromosomes. To illustrate: if a wild red-eyed female fruit-fly is mated to a white-eyed male, the progeny will be all red-eyed, because red is dominant over white, and the sexes will be equal in number; but if the progeny are allowed to inbreed, the next generation will show three reds to one white, and all white-eyed flies will be males. Now, if a reciprocal cross is made, that is, if a wild red-eyed male be crossed with a white-eyed female, the descendants in the second generation will show red and white distributed equally in both sexes. These results show the behavior of sex-linked characters for eye-color, when only one pair of factors is involved. To illustrate further, when dealing with two or more pairs of such factors: if a gray fly with vestigial wings is crossed with a long-winged ebony fly, the progeny have long wings and gray bodies, but when these are inbred four types are produced, showing the behavior of two pairs of factors which reside in different chromosomes. A further experiment indicates the inheritance of three types of factors that lie in different chromosomes: an ebony eyeless fly was mated to a vestigial stock, and the offspring were normal, but when these were inbred, eight types of progeny were obtained. The same phenomenon was observed for more than three pairs of chromosomes and the number of types of germ-cells that were produced increased in geometrical ratio.

From such data it is concluded that in most animals and plants the number of chromosomes is higher than in Drosophila, and the number of pairs of factors which show independent assortment is consequently increased. It is interesting to notice the number of chromosomes, which has been determined for the germ-cells of the following forms: in the snail (*Helix hortensis*), 22; in the potato beetle, 18; in man, probably, 24; in the mouse, 20; in cotton, 28; in the four-o'clock, 16; in the garden pea, 7; in corn, 20; in the evening primrose, 7; in nightshade, 36; in tobacco, 24; in the tomato, 12; in wheat, 8.

Following the law of geometrical increase, when one pair of chromosomes contains 2 factors, two will have 4, and three 8, but with ten pairs of chromosomes in any cross the number of factors mounts to 1,094, while from twenty chromosomal pairs in the first hybrid, we should expect over a million possible kinds of germplasm. Moreover, the number of combinations which two sets of germ-cells may produce through fertilization is extended to an enormous degree. Such considerations suggest the unrivalled complexity of the processes which the mechanism of inheritance entails, and which have their seat in bodies that move with freedom within the compass of a microscopic cell. From this point of view also we can understand the absence of identical individuals in such mixed types as the human race affords. When we further consider the large number of factors which may reside in each chromosome, the chance of identity between individuals is reduced to the vanishing point.

It is an established fact in biology that no trait will develop without its proper environmental complex, and that traits may differ with the kind of environment: thus, it was found that flies, when kept at low temperatures, produced supernumerary legs, while such a mutation under normal conditions was rare. Evidence from cytology, experimental embryology, and regeneration shows that all the different cells of the body receive the same hereditary factors. These are not sorted out, each to its appropriate cell, in such a manner that only the factors for color go to the pigment cells, or those for wing-shape to the cells of the wing, but such differentiation is due to the cumulative effect of the regional differences in the egg and embryo, which react with the factorial background that is the same in every cell.

The tendency for factors to stay together in chromosomes is called "linkage," while the process of interchange of factors from one chromosome to another is known as "crossing over." Experiment proves that the amount of crossing over is independent of the way in which the factors enter the individual fly, and that in certain sex-linked characters the crossing takes place in the female, but not in the male.

As to the mechanism of the crossing-over of characters, it is suggested that, in the early stages of growth of the germ-cells, uniting chromosomes twist around each other as they come together in such a way that a given one can exchange parts with its mate. Now, the chance that such a process of crossing over will occur between any two points on the chromosome should be the greater the greater the distance between such points, and if the Mendelian factors lie along the chromosomes, the amount of crossing-over between them will depend on their distance from one another.

In studying the inheritance of sex the authors found that a dominant male transmitted his dominant sex-linked factor only to his daughters, for if a red-eyed female be mated to a white-eyed male, the offspring are all red-eyed; when these are inbred the female offspring have red eyes; but a division occurs in the males, one-half of them being white-eyed and the other half red-eyed. Thus, in such a case, a grandfather transmits a visible character to one-half of his grandsons, but to none of his granddaughters; on the other hand, when a white-eyed female was bred to a red-eyed male, the female progeny was red-eyed and the males white-eyed, and upon further interbreeding red and white females and males were produced in equal numbers. Such experiments show that the factor for white eyes is carried by the sex-chromosomes, and this behavior is in accord with the inheritance of color-blindness in man. In the language of students of heredity those characteristics that differ in both sexes are called "sex limited," while those which determine sex are known as "sex factors."

The old ideas that sex was determined by the mental attitude of the mother before the birth of her child, by food, or by any attributes of the environment, such as are produced by wars or famine, receive no support from modern students of genetics. All experimental data at present available point to the falsity of such conceptions, and show that sex is a Mendelian character, determined at fertilization, and the evidence which the authors have submitted under this head is particularly valuable and conclusive.

The agents known as "factors" or "determiners," which Mendelians use so freely at the present time, are supposed to set the limits of possibility, and thus determine the development of an individual in all its bodily and mental powers. To this conception the authors have added the idea of "factor-difference"; where two living things are identical except for one characteristic, one of them is then said to differ from the other by a single factor-difference. Thus, a germ-cell that produces white eyes is said to differ from a germ-cell that produces red by one factor-difference, which might arise through a factor in the red-eyed individual mutating to a factor for white. Again, one factor may produce manifold effects upon development, or a single character may depend on several factors. From this review it will not appear surprising if students of heredity sometimes suffer from a confusion of terms.

Upon the factorial hypothesis it is not an

sumed that a given factor produces a particular character, but only that a character in one organism may differ from a character in another because the sets of factors have one difference; thus, populations of many species, and especially those in nature, are mixtures of factors of different types, and are composed of individuals having different germplasms. To illustrate further: in black-eyed, brown-eyed, blue-eyed, and pink-eyed human beings the eye-color has been shown to be dependent on different factorial complexes.

The fact that no two living things are identical in nature leads us at once to the great central problem of biology—the cause of variation. Upon the basis of the factorial hypothesis of life we must assume that variation is always due to some factor-difference, and it is quite possible to sort out certain types into homozygous strains, by proper selection and inbreeding, until a race containing only one factor-difference is produced. Such strains are known as pure lines, such as were obtained by Johannsen in his experiments with the common garden bean, but even such pure lines showed a certain type of variation, so that some variability is probably due to environmental differences.

According to Weismann's theory of development certain elements in the germplasm were sorted out and distributed to appropriate parts of the organism, in the course of division among the embryonic cells, but this conception had to be abandoned. Some of this ingenious thinker's ideas concerning heredity, however, have fared better, and have much in common with the factorial theory; in either case it is assumed that the germplasm contains a host of elements, which are independent of one another, since one pair of factors may be substituted for another without change in either; again, these paired elements can perpetuate themselves unchanged, although in company with different factor-complexes.

In 1913 Weismann modified his earlier views, to bring them in harmony with the Mendelian conception of heredity, but still adhered to his mosaic theory of development; in order to account for the localization of certain specific characters he assumed that in the production of body-cells disintegration of the germplasm took place, but this, again, is not supported by more recent work on the subject of development.

In the factorial conception of heredity no attempt is made to explain the cause of differentiation in the cells of the developing embryo; it is only assumed that all the hereditary factors are present in every cell of the organism, but this supposition is in accord with our modern conception of protoplasm. In the work under review the factors are regarded as chemical constituents of the egg, and it is assumed that, like chemical bodies, they have a definite chemical composition, but the characters of the organism are far removed from such material structures; between the two lies a vast range of developmental processes, in which many and varied reactions take place before the end result—the character—emerges. If every cell in the body of one individual has one complex, and every cell in the body of another individual has another that differs from the former by a single difference, we can treat the two systems as two complexes quite irrespective of what development does, so long as development is orderly.

"It is sometimes said," to quote a concluding paragraph of this extremely suggestive and valuable work, "that our theories of heredity must remain superficial until we know something of the reactions that transform the egg into the adult. There can be no question of the paramount importance of finding out what takes place during development. The efforts of all students of experimental embryology have been directed for several years towards this goal. It may even be true that this information, when gained, may help us to a better understanding of the factorial theory: we cannot tell; for a knowledge of the chemistry of all the pigments in an animal or plant might still be very far removed from an understanding of the chemical constitution of the hereditary factors by whose activity the pigments are ultimately produced. However this may be, the far-reaching significance of Mendel's principles remains, and gives us a numerical basis for the study of heredity."

"War Surgery" (New York: P. D. Hoeber; $1.50), by Edmond Delorme, translated by H. de Méric, is an encyclopædic manual in small compass dealing with projectiles and military wounds. In the early chapters are descriptions of different kinds of projectiles and the characteristic wounds caused by each, the larger portion of the book being devoted to regional surgery. It is surprising to find but the briefest mention of infections, the problem with which military surgeons are chiefly concerned in the present war. In general it is a handbook which would be studied to advantage by members of the Medical Reserve Corps and by American surgeons applying for positions in field or base hospitals.

Sir Ray Lankester has collected and revised a third volume of his brief chapters of science, what one might call newspaper column essays, under the title "Diversions of a Naturalist" (Macmillan). A paragraph of his preface is significant: "At this time of stress and anxiety we all, however steadfast in giving our service to the great task in which our country is engaged, must, from time to time, seek intervals of release from the torrent of thoughts which is set going by the tremendous fact that we are fighting for our existence. To very many relief comes in splendid self-sacrificing action, in the joyful exercise of youthful strength and vigor for a noble cause. But even these, as well as those who are less fortunate, need intervals of diversion—brief change of thought and mental occupation—after which they may return to their great duties rested and refreshed. . . . I offer these chapters to the reader as possibly affording to him, as their revision has to me, a welcome escape, when health demands it, from the immense and inexorable obsession of warfare." Ten captions from among the four score will give an idea of the diversity and scope: Nature-Reserves, Amber, Grouse and Other Birds, The Constituents of a Seabeach, Science and Dancing, Daddy-long-legs, From Ape to Man, The Supply of Pure Milk, Christmas Trees and other Pine Trees, Birth-Marks and Telegony. We miss the keen insight of Fabre and the philosophy of a Maeterlinck, and the detachment of a compiler of second-hand facts is evident. But Sir Ray has nevertheless given us much of his able, straightforward British point of view, which makes the chapters well worth reading. They are instructive but not literature, they are absorbing but they are emotionless.

Music

SAINT-SAENS'S "SAMSON ET DALILA."

One of the most notable events at the Metropolitan Opera House this season has been the successful production of "Samson et Dalila." It had been repeatedly sung in New York as an oratorio, without scenery and action, and it was in the repertory of Oscar Hammerstein at the Manhattan Opera House, a few years ago; but the Metropolitan, which has not in recent years been as hospitable to French operas as it was formerly (especially during the régime of Maurice Grau) did not stage this world-famed masterwork till last November, when it opened the season, with Caruso as Samson, Matzenauer as Dalila. Last week this contralto's place was taken by Louise Homer, whose personal beauty fits her particularly for this part, and whose beautiful voice was sure to be heard to advantage in the famous love scene which is the climax of the opera. Caruso excels in this work both as singer and actor.

With the exception of Gounod's "Faust" and Bizet's "Carmen," no French opera has been more popular in France for several decades than "Samson et Dalila." Just at present, when its octogenarian composer is pardonably so enraged over the Germans that he wants their music excluded from France, it is of interest to note that his opera, like the two others just named, was not applauded in France until after German audiences had put their stamp of approval on it. The origin of this opera takes us back to the Franco-Prussian War. One of its victims was Henri Regnault, who sang Samson just before the war, at a private hearing. The score was completed in 1872, and at another private performance the great Viardot-Garcia sang the part of Dalila. The French opera houses, however, had no use for it, and it remained for Liszt to do for this opera what he had done, more than a quarter of a century earlier, for Wagner's "Lohengrin," which also was not wanted, even at Dresden, where Wagner was royal conductor.

In December, 1877, "Samson et Dalila" was sung for the first time, in Weimar, under Liszt, and thence it soon made its way to other German opera houses. Brussels first heard it, under the composer's direction, in 1878, but France did not hear it till

1890. Rouen started the ball rolling, followed by Lyons and Marseilles. In the following year nine more French cities took it up, the tenth being Paris, which thus waited twenty years before it had a chance to applaud the master work of the man whom Richard Wagner justly called "the greatest living French composer." Despite the great vogue it soon gained, England remained indifferent, owing chiefly to its Biblical story, a point on which the English had been inexorable ever since the Bishop of London refused Handel permission to produce his oratorios with action and scenery.

Fortunately, like Handel's oratorios, "Samson et Dalila" is also effective in the concert hall, owing to the predominance in it of the choral element. The choruses in this opera are, indeed, as important as those which are chiefly responsible for the success, at the Metropolitan, of Moussorgsky's "Boris Godounov," now in its third season there. Yet the action and scenery add much to the impression made by the opera of Saint-Saëns, and it is as an opera rather than as an oratorio that it is likely to survive another generation or two. There is more than one splendid operatic climax in it, using the word operatic in its higher, dramatic sense. The influence of Wagner is shown in the abandonment of detached numbers and the slight use of leading motives, recurring here and there, but not otherwise in the music, which is thoroughly original and French, except where the composer introduces Oriental coloring, which he does with rare charm. Perhaps no other master has equalled Saint-Saëns in the chameleonic art of changing musical color. Gounod said of him that "he could write at will a work in the style of Rossini, of Verdi, of Schumann, or of Wagner." Fortunately, he wrote for the most part in a style of his own. This style is exemplified in others of his fifteen operas, some of which have had much vogue in France. Now that Mr. Gatti-Casazza has so successfully staged "Samson et Dalila," it is to be hoped he will continue the good work next season with "Henry VIII."

HENRY T. FINCK.

THE NEIGHBORHOOD PLAYHOUSE.

Assisted by the Chalif dancers, a professional company, the Neighborhood Playhouse is staging on Saturday and Sunday nights a very acceptable presentation of the ballet "Petrouchka," preceded by symbolic dances. The little ballet, in four scenes, with music by Stravinsky, requires three principal actors, representing the puppets at a country fair, and a stage full of peasants, village folk, soldiery, and other minor characters. The East Side neighborhood had been drawn upon for the people of this background, who are costumed ambitiously and successfully, and who play with spirit. Indeed, the chief interest of the performance lies in the revelation of how naturally a ballet which has just been given with pomp and circumstance in an expensive uptown production may be adapted to the requirements of a small stage and an inexperienced cast. The major parts are well taken by persons of more mature training. The chief deficiency of the performance is in the rendition of the musical setting. A. N.

Art

The London *Athenæum* remarks that the present war has provided what is probably the first occasion on which an archæologist has received the Military Cross for Valour for gallantry in the excavation for antiquities. This honor was recently obtained by Père Dhorme, professor at the College of St. Joseph, Beyrut, who at Gallipoli for many weeks persistently rescued from the trenches a collection of Greek vases and statuettes, while subject to heavy rifle and shell fire. As the troops had already come across antiquities, the French general and Père Dhorme decided to make excavations, assisted by four poilus, some of whom were wounded, while one was struck down by sickness. Père Dhorme persisted in his explorations with happy results. Besides statuettes and vases, five splendid sarcophagi and some jewelry were discovered.

"Masterpieces of Painting," their qualities and meaning, by Louise R. Jewett (Boston: Badger; $1 net), has a melancholy interest as a kind of memorial to a dearly loved professor at Mount Holyoke College. The unpretentious little volume describes the great periods of European painting before the eighteenth century, chiefly from the point of view of technique. It answers the question: Exactly what were the artists trying to do? The little book is written with accuracy, feeling, and taste. It has sufficient illustrative matter, with suggestions for collateral reading. While, in the first instance, intended for class use, and therefore somewhat elementary in treatment, it may be read with profit by any lover of art who wishes to coördinate his scattered admirations.

"The Flower Art of Japan," by Mary Averill (Lane; $1.50), supplements the admirable elementary book on the same subject which this author put out some years ago. Here the reader is led into the more intricate and symbolic forms of flower composition. The various charming ship motives are explained, also the rather difficult arrangement in shallow dishes. What distinguishes the flower art of Japan is its insistence on form; foliage and even dried branches are as available as flowers. The relation of the container to the composition is scrupulously studied. A delicate symbolism often guides the flower artist's hand. All this is different enough from the mere massing of flowers as spots of color. The book is attractively made in a quasi-Japanese style, and the numerous outlines by the author are good to look at, and most useful as explanation of the chief arrangements.

Maurice W. Brockwell has produced a model private catalogue in the big and handsomely printed quarto, "Catalogue of the Pictures and Other Works of Art in the Collection of Lord St. Oswald at Nostell Priory" (London: Constable; 3 guineas net). The house is an excellent example of middle Georgian architecture. The proprietors were in constant relations with Chippendale and the Adamses. Mr. Brockwell has unearthed and published inedited letters of an interesting sort to and from these designers. Many of the pictures are in Chippendale frames. The pictures were collected about eighty years ago, and reflect the academic taste of that time. There are several important Poussins, Ruysdaels, Wilsons, and Claudes. There is a Rembrandt portrait, a Hogarth composition, and two lovely Elsheimers. Nostell Priory is, of course, most famous for the great family group said to have been painted by Holbein for Sir Thomas More. It can be traced back to the Roper family, More's relatives by the marriage of his daughter Margaret. Mr. Brockwell thinks we may have to do with a picture started by Holbein and finished by a far inferior hand. It is hard to square this view with Mr. Brockwell's important discovery of a badly damaged signature which he reads "Richardus Locky Fec. Ano 1530." It would seem as if this Locky, of whom we have no other information, should be the artist, compiling the group from the well-known sketches of Holbein. Besides the excellent photogravures of the pictures, there are a number of interiors, which are interesting from the point of view of Georgian decoration. The edition is limited to 100 copies. Aside from the artistic features there are chapters on the Priory, which dates from Anglo-Saxon times, and on the more important members of its proprietors, the Winn family. It is a diligent piece of criticism and antiquarianism, and charmingly written.

That the Scholar, the Sage, the Western Woman, and the Coffee Angel enjoyed their trip is clear, but it may be doubted whether many readers will care to follow to the end the adventures of "The Four in Crete" (Abingdon Press; $1.25 net), as told by Gertrude H. Beggs. They visited no remarkably out-of-the-way places and had no very unusual experiences, unless the ability of the Coffee Angel to provide food at unexpected times be so considered; and the writer's style is not one that seems likely in itself to hold the reader's attention. Not all of the book is bad. When Miss Beggs relapses frankly into narrative or description, she shows no little power of observation and a keen appreciation of the contrasts between old and new and between East and West which impress every traveller in the eastern Mediterranan. She displays a respectable acquaintance with the results of excavation at Knossos, Phaistos, Gortyn, and Hagia Triada. But she is obsessed by the idea of trying to enliven her tale by employing dialogue; and page after page is filled with long disquisitions by the Scholar and the Sage, which read like paraphrases of Baedeker, and are utterly unconvincing. The literary *genre* to which the book must be assigned is that of the "Rollo" books of our youth, in which, if we remember rightly, the "sugar-coating" of useful information was much more skilfully attempted.

Vachel Lindsay's "The Art of the Moving Picture" (Macmillan) is a continuous rhapsody by no means uninteresting to read, but more difficult to believe. For the general position, however, that the trouble with most picture plays is excess of action he should find sympathy. He suggests that the regulating motives for artistic films should be sought in the representative arts, painting, sculpture, and architecture. One will go with him when he asserts the advantage of the picture play in all themes involving crowds and in all concerned with open-air effects. In emphasizing the value that the moving picture may give to inanimate things he is most suggestive. Here he oddly misses the obvious point that this is precisely the advantage of the novel over other forms of art—as numerous instances in Balzac, Hawthorne, and Poe attest. Indeed, the fairest way to look at the picture play is, it seems to us, to regard it as a visualized narrative. It does not really lend itself to

significant action or to dramatic concentration and suspense. It is, in short, not a form of drama, but of story telling. To the inevitable ugliness of the moving pictures Mr. Lindsay is strangely oblivious. It seems to us that audiences which habitually accept the glaring lights and sooty blacks, not to mention the accidental scintillations through the flaws, are really dulling their appreciation of all forms of visible beauty. Mr. Lindsay's book is written with a fine idealism from a background of appreciation of the best painting and sculpture. We could wish the book in the hands of every manager of picture plays.

Finance

EXCHANGE ON BERLIN.

During our Civil War, the premium on gold at New York, and with it the rate of exchange on New York at the European money centres, reflected instantly by its upward and downward movements the varying fortunes of the battlefield. Gold declined 2 per cent. on the news of Grant's victories in the West, early in 1862. The price rose from 103 to 119 on McClellan's retreat from the Chickahominy, and from 148 to 154 after Hooker's defeat at Chancellorsville; fell from 147 to 131½ on the news of Gettysburg, and from 207 at the beginning of the final Union advance to 145 on Lee's surrender. It has not been possible to trace, however, in the foreign exchange rates on belligerent Europe, any such reflection of the shifting military news of the present campaign, and the quoting of a premium on gold has not been an incident in any of Europe's markets.

As a matter of fact, New York exchange on practically all the belligerent European markets—notably London, Paris, and Berlin—went simultaneously to very low figures at the opening of September. English and French exchange was thereafter supported through the raising of the $500,000,000 loan in the United States, and the payment for American war material with the proceeds, instead of drawing bills of exchange on France or England. But exchange on Berlin has continued its downward movement. Having reached 80⅜ in last September's decline, it sold for 76 at the end of 1915 and fell to 72⅞ in the opening week of January. Recovering the next month to 77¾, it fell last Tuesday to 71⅞, the lowest rate ever quoted. Measured by 95¼, the normal par of German exchange, the depreciation to date exceeds 24 per cent. The reichsmark, which is worth 23⅞ cents at par, was valued in this week's exchange market at 18 cents.

Among the theories thrown out, during the week's decline, was the imagined transfer of German-owned or American-owned capital from Berlin to New York; the purchase of goods here for delivery to Germany after the war, and a roundabout manœuvre to get control of an Argentine gold deposit in Holland or Scandinavia. All these explanations were promptly discredited by international bankers. That Berlin has certain payments to make at New York, for interest on such Imperial war bonds as were sold to American investors, and possibly for American merchandise obtained through European neutral ports, was admitted. This might explain the fact of a decline in rates; but it left the reason for a 24 per cent. depreciation debatable.

Among most economists, the belief continues to prevail that this depreciation, and with it the present discount of 14 per cent. on French exchange and of 38 per cent. on Russian exchange, is chiefly a measure of depreciation in the currency of those countries, caused by the doubling or quadrupling of their paper money issues during the war (Germany's have increased 300 per cent.), after suspension of gold redemption. The question is put thus by the economist: Could foreign exchange rates, all other things being equal, remain at parity when a home currency was in that condition, and when a bill of exchange, for which the New York purchaser had to pay gold value, was redeemable at Berlin, or Paris, or Petrograd in that currency?

Most people of practical experience must answer, No. It is sometimes answered, by those who dislike to accept the alternative of currency depreciation, that since Germany is almost completely cut off from commerce with America, the low exchange rate merely measures the obstacles to communication and the difficulty of transferring funds. That would undoubtedly accentuate an adverse movement in exchange. But would it remove the currency as a cause?

When London exchange in neutral Continental markets fell during 1809 to 20 per cent. discount, some practical banking experts testified before a Parliamentary committee that the entire depreciation was due to Napoleon's blockade against England. Others ascribed it wholly to a disproportionate growth of imports; still others, to the supposition that gold was so scarce on the Continent that exchange on London had to be reduced to get it. All these influences undoubtedly contributed, as similar special influences have helped, to depress the present exchange rate on Berlin. But the Parliamentary committee decided that it meant depreciation of the English currency, following suspension of gold redemption; and economic history has accepted the explanation.

The point on which agreement seemed to be general last week was the failure of the Berlin plan, under the Bundesrath decree of January 28, to support the rate, through forbidding any one but a specially selected syndicate of bankers to deal in exchange in Germany. From the formal statement as to the purpose of that arrangement, it was evident that this committee of banks proposed to post the official rate each day and see that it was maintained. How this was to be effected, no one was informed. Berlin was unable to borrow here in quantity, like London and Paris. If (like London) it shipped gold to neutral markets, the amount was relatively small. The New York banking public could not be fairly blamed, therefore, when it concluded that the German Government had assumed that a decree of the Bundesrath and the prohibition of free dealing in exchange was sufficient of itself to sustain the market.

Whether this inference was or was not correct, the market did not hold. The relentless economist pointed out that, on the first of March, Germany's paper circulation was about $400,000,000 greater than a year before and $1,500,000,000 more than when the war began. Berlin itself has officially ascribed the fall in exchange to "speculative machinations on the part of Germany's adversaries on the neutral bourse." The trouble with that explanation is, that it is always produced to explain any unpleasant financial movement whose precise cause is disputed. Our "greenbackers" of 1864 devoutly believed that our own irredeemable paper currency of that period would have exchanged at par for gold, but for the machinations of the Government's enemies in Wall Street.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

De Crespigny, C. Where the Path Breaks. Century. $1.30 net.
Prouty, O. H. The Fifth Wheel. Stokes. $1.35 net.
Tarkington, B. Seventeen. Harper. $1.35 net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Allen, J. L. A Cathedral Singer. Century. $1 net.
Auer, H. A. Camp Fires in the Yukon. Stewart, Kidd & Co. $1.75.
Bangs, J. K. From Pillar to Post. Century. $1.60 net.

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Report on the Progress and Condition of the U. S. National Museum for the Year ending June 30, 1915. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Stevenson, R. L. Father Damien. Scribner. 50 cents net.
The Assumption of the Virgin—A Miracle Play from the N-Town Cycle. Edited by W. W. Gregg. Oxford University Press. 4s. 6d. net.
Van Vorst, M. War Letters of an American Woman. Lane. $1.50 net.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Hood, W. R. Digest of State Laws Relating to Public Education. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Matthai, J. Village Government in British India. T. Fisher Unwin.
Streightoff, F. D. and F. H. Indiana, a Social and Economic Survey. Indianapolis, Ind.: W. K. Stewart Co.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Cressy, E. An Outline of Industrial History. Macmillan. $1.10 net.
Mayo, L. S. Jeffery Amherst. Longmans, Green. 2 net.
Orth, S. P. The Imperial Impulse. Century. $1.20 net.
Gibbons, H. A. The Foundation of the Ottoman Empire. Century. $3 net.
Soloviev, E. Dostoievsky: His Life and Literary Activity. Macmillan.
Stephens, K. The Mastering of Mexico. Macmillan. $1.50.
The Register of St. Augustine's Abbey, Canterbury: Records of Social and Economic History. Edited by G. J. Turner and H. E. Salter. Part I. Oxford University Press. 16s. net.

POETRY.

Chapman, W. The Amber Valley. Toronto: S. B. Gundy.
Hyslop, J. H. Poems, Original and Translations. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Manly, J. M. English Prose and Poetry. Boston: Ginn.

DRAMA.

D'Annunzio, G. The Honeysuckle. Stokes. $1.25 net.

TEXTBOOKS.

Benezet, L. P. The Story of the Map of Europe. Scott, Foresman. 60 cents net.
Betz, W., and Webb, H. E. Solid Geometry. Boston: Ginn. 75 cents.
Brewer, J. M. Oral English. Boston: Ginn. $1 net.
Goetschius, P. The Larger Forms of Musical Composition. G. Schirmer. $2 net.
Gunnison, W. B., and Harley, W. S. Latin for the First Year. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Kind, J. Des Meeres und der Liebe Wellen. Oxford University Press. 70 cents net.
Kron, R. German Daily Life. A Reader. Dutton.
Parker, H., and Others. The Progressive Music series. Books 1-3 and 4. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Richards, S. A. Phonetic French Reader. Dutton.
Rippman, W. First Steps in French. Dutton.
Serl, E. Work-a-Day Doings on the Farm. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Seymour, H. A. How to Think Music. G. Schirmer.

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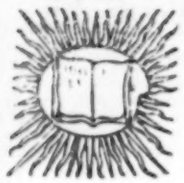

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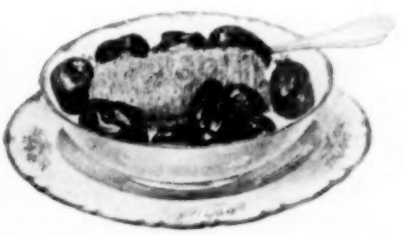

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